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# **The Role of Scenario-Based Instruction in Enhancing Students of Business English Motivation**

**The Case of 4<sup>th</sup> Year Students in the Management Department at  
–Mentouri University of Constantine**

**Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Language in Partial Fulfilment of the  
Requirement for the Magister Degree in Applied Linguistics and Foreign Language  
Teaching**

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**DEDICATION**

TO MY PARENTS

TO MY BROTHERS AND SISTERS

TO 'HAIDER' MY BEST FRIEND

TO ALL MY TEACHERS AND COLLEAGUES

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### **Abstract**

It is believed that creating a motivating learning context in language classes has a positive effect on the learners' motivation. The more this context is similar to the real world the more classroom activities are likely to attract the learners' attention and promote their autonomy and engagement. The present dissertation aims at studying the effect of creating a motivating learning context inspired from real world scenarios on language learners' motivation. More specifically, it aims at investigating the role of the so called scenario-based methodology in enhancing the Business English learners' motivation in the department of Commerce at Mentouri University in Constantine. It is hypothesized, in this study, that scenario-based lessons which are inspired from real business situations would enhance learners' rate of participating in manipulating and redirecting their learning procedure. In other words, the variable of scenario-based instruction would enhance learners' motivation to learn and promote their rate of commitment to the learning process. The research methodology relies on three research tools to investigate the validity of the research hypothesis and variables. A students' questionnaire was administered, video recordings of classroom observation and pre-testing and post-testing interviews of the scenario-based instruction were carried out. The results of the study provided a significant support to the hypothesis though they cannot be said to have fulfilled generalization requirements.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BICS:	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills.
CALP:	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency.
COLT:	Communication Orientation of Language Teaching.
EAP:	English for Academic Purposes.
EBE:	English for Business and Economics.
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language.
EGAP:	English for General Academic Purposes.
ELTDU:	English Language Teaching Development Unit.
EOP:	English for Occupational Purposes.
ERG:	Existence Relatedness Growth.
ESAP:	English for Specific Academic Purposes.
ESL:	English as a Second Language.
ESP:	English for Specific Purposes.
ESS:	English for Social Studies.
EST:	English for Science and Technology.
LSP:	Language for Specific Purposes.
MOLT:	Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching.
n-Ach:	Needs for Achievement.
n-Aff:	Need for Affiliation.
n-Pow:	Need for Power.
TENOR:	Teaching English for No Obvious Reason

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## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

### 1. Background of the Study

Teaching English to non-linguistic students means achieving a variety of objectives. Whenever we are writing or speaking, trying to persuade, inform, entertain, explain, convince or educate or any other objective behind the particular communication task we are engaged in, we always have four general objectives.

They are:

- To be received;
- To be understood;
- To be accepted;
- To get action. (N. Stanton, 1996, p.11)

ESP (English for Specific Purposes) is used where English is learned with some specific vocational or educational purposes in mind. ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It covers subjects varying from accounting or computer science to tourism and business management. The ESP focal point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world (or expectations); instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners.

- ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners.
- ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.
- ESP is centred on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre. (Dudley Evans, 1997)

What is the role of the learner and what is the task he/she faces? The students are usually adults who already have some acquaintance with English and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions. They come to the ESP classes with specific interest for learning, subject matter knowledge, and well built adult learning strategies. They are in charge of developing English language skills to reflect their native-language knowledge and skills. The clear relevance of the English course to students' needs improves the learners' motivation and makes learning better and faster (Hutchinson and Waters 1999, p.8). What distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of a need as such but rather an awareness of the need. If learners and teachers know why the learners need English, that awareness will have an influence on what will be accepted as reasonable content in the language course and, on the positive side, what potential can be exploited (Hutchinson and Waters 1987, p. 53).

There is a growing consensus among language teaching community that, comparing to classical "instructivist" learning emphasising vocabulary and formal grammar rules, better course completion rates and better learning outcomes can be achieved by using approaches that enhance opportunities for students to engage with authentic situations and tasks. Some of such approaches, influenced by constructivist philosophy, are problem-based learning (Felix, 2002) and scenario-based learning (Kindley, 2002). Scenario-based learning is defined as "... learning that occurs in a context, situation, or social framework. It is based on the concept of situated cognition, which is the idea that knowledge can't be known or fully understood independent of its context" (Kindley, 2002). Scenario based instruction is grounded in situated learning theory, which focuses on the importance of

conceptualising learning activity in real life scenarios and contexts. In scenario-based learning, learners participate in a fictional context-based meaningful authentic learning environment and collaborate with other participants in completing activities structured into scenarios reproducing real-world situations. Decisions made by the learners affect the outcomes of the scenarios. Continuous feedback is provided for guidance and scaffolding. The benefits of scenario-based learning and its successful uses in language teaching are well documented (Gee, 2004). Scenarios are selected to reflect common and/or particularly important situations that are likely to occur in the actual language use. Scenarios and case studies are a common way to structure business-related knowledge. Therefore, scenario-based learning is a paradigm particularly suitable for teaching business English. Common business scenarios resulting in authentic, immersive learning environment can be used in case of business English. In such an environment, linguistic knowledge can be acquired directly as tacit knowledge, without formalising it as grammar rules or vocabulary lists. At the same time, scenario-based learning allows learners to focus on the target context of language usage, resulting in more student interest and involvement in the learning tasks.

## **2. Statement of the Problem**

With the world wide technological and scientific advance, teaching English for specific purposes gained more importance within different curricula throughout the world's higher education networks. The Algerian educational system, as well, has apparently assigned English an important role in its development. Yet, when we analyze the different departments of Constantine University, we come to assert

that English is confined between the English department's walls. An in depth-analysis would reveal that it is mainly used inside the classrooms.

Though English has been introduced to the different departments of Constantine University, it remains far from being used in the students' higher educational parcours. With Arabic as the main language of instruction for the majority of the fields, and French for the medical, Para-medical and some technical fields and the language of the active world of employment, English plays a secondary role in the Algerian university.

From our own experience in carrying out four years of study in the Management department (Département des Sciences de Gestion) at Mentouri University in Constantine, we noticed that English occupied the least important position among other subjects of the curriculum (if not non-important at all). Students tend to see the English sessions as leisure times which they attend in order to get a change from the content subjects they deal with during the whole week, or as obligatory sessions during which they relax, or in exams periods they take profit to revise other subjects. English teachers on their turn feel unhappy, demotivated and exhausted from teaching students whose interest in the subject seem to be nonexistent: their sole interest is to get the required mark (10, the average) by all the means, cheating as well, to get rid of this subject which most of them qualify as useless and cumbersome.

### **3. Aim of the Study and Research Questions**

The aim of our research is, on the one hand, to provide a general view of the situation of the teaching and learning of English in the departments other than the English one by investigating the situation of the department of Commerce. We

intend to determine the main factors behind such a degraded status of the English language in this department and to shed light on those variables we assume are efficient to remedy the problem once manipulated in the appropriate way. On the other hand, we aim at proving the efficient role of the Scenario-Based methodology in promoting the learners' motivation and involvement in the learning process.

Hence, the purpose of the study is to answer the following questions:

- What might be the reasons behind such a loss of interest among the learners?
- How far are learners aware of the importance of English for their professional lives?
- Can scenario-based learning improve learners' motivation and involvement?
- What else can be done to enhance learners' motivation?

In this study, we hypothesise that involving the students in practicing tasks akin to that of the real world in a stimulating professional way would enhance their interest for learning English. In other words, delivering Scenario-Based lectures inspired from real professional situations in administration, commerce, finance and management would increase the learners' motivation and encourage them to undertake rather than undergo the process of learning English.

#### **4. Methodology**

Though the problem has been observed along the all the years of the curriculum, it would be time and effort consuming to test our hypothesis including groups from all the grades. We assume, then, that the final year students are more likely to be stimulated by the proposed research, since they are closer to the active world of employment and will be looking for a job in few months. Hence, two groups of Master students and two other groups of the 3<sup>rd</sup> year of LMD Licence

students in the department of Commerce, Mentouri University Ali Mendjli in Constantine, will constitute the population of the study.

In order to answer the research questions and test the set hypothesis, we used the following research tools:

First, we administered a pilot questionnaire to small group as a first step to the main study;

Second, we administered the main questionnaire to the target population in order to:

- a) Collect data about the current status of English in the concerned department and check how learners perceive the situation,
- b) Determine the learners' needs and learning preferences and strategies as a support to the experiment design.

Third, we recorded focused pre-testing interviews with a selected sample of twelve learners in order to support the questionnaire's results.

Fourth, we implemented the experimentation during the whole academic year with the same sample and recorded a sample video for classroom observation.

Fifth, we recorded focused post-testing interviews with the same sample to provide a support of the classroom observation results and learners' personal evaluation of the scenario-based methodology.

## **5. Structure of the Work**

The dissertation consists of five chapters. It starts with an introduction that deals with what motivated the undertaking of the study, and the statement of the problem. It, also, describes the foundations and the outline of the dissertation.

The first chapter consists of a general overview of the independent variable. It provides a set of definitions of the most relating terms and concepts to the

Scenario-Based methodology. It, also, reviews the scenario-based learning literature and shows its relations to the field of language learning.

The second chapter concerns the dependent variable, Motivation. It provides a literature survey of the most influential motivational theories as related to the scope of the dissertation. The chapter, also, demonstrates some related studies in the field of language learning motivation.

The third chapter deals with the environment within which the study is carried out i.e. Business English. It covers some aspects of the theoretical literature of ESP and its subdomains as well as relating aspects to the field of ESP such as needs analysis, register and genre analysis ...etc.

The practical part of the dissertation is divided into two chapters as to balance the whole work.

Chapter four deals with the analysis of the general settings of the situation from which the problem has emerged. It demonstrates the results of the main questionnaire and the pre-testing interview and ends with a discussion of these results under the light of the theoretical literature covered in chapters one, two and three.

Chapter five consists of the experiment's results. It displays the results of the pre-testing questionnaire and the classroom observation video recordings. It, also, discusses the obtained results and describes the limitations of the study. At the end, the chapter provides some pedagogical implications of the study.

## CHAPTER ONE: SCENARIO-BASED METHODOLOGY

### Introduction

Foreign language teaching has been widely investigated and differently approached by different scholars along the years. The emergence of English as a powerful language and its worldwide use in mostly all the fields, has witnessed a large interest in developing, adapting and trying new methods and materials to satisfy the growing needs to learn English. Provided that the present piece of research aims at testing one of those methods which is in the core of what we previously hypothesized, the scenario-based instruction, we found it highly appropriate to devote a chapter to investigate the literature of this methodology. In fact, we assume that it is highly necessary to support the present research with a whole chapter devoted to the independent variable that will be tested within the scope of the research. In this respect, the present chapter will be dedicated to the study of the scenario-based instruction starting from the very beginning, as to provide the basic definitions of the term scenario and its different interpretations and applications to different fields and its relevance to the field of language teaching. The chapter will then review the theoretical ground of the scenario-based methodology, by covering related vocabulary, definitions, key components, origins, and the most striking relationships of the key concepts to the field of language teaching.

#### 1. Definition of the Term Scenario

Defining a term is far from being a matter of consensus. As numerous as the number of the existing dictionaries a wide range of definitions stand behind the term scenario. Yet, within the limited scope of the present research, a selection of some

of the most known dictionaries seems highly appropriate to pave the way to more enlightened discussions about the topic in hand.

### **1.1.Dictionary Definitions**

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005) provides two definitions for the term scenario:

1. A situation that could possibly happen.
2. (Technical) a written description of the characters, place, and things that will happen in a film, play etc.

Oxford Dictionary Online Dictionary, too, provides two definitions for the term:

1. A written outline of a film, novel, or stage work giving details of the plot and individual scenes.
2. A suggested sequence or development of events.

From the above mentioned definitions, we can already start a primary analysis of the term. Sorting out the most apparent components of the scenario as they have been cited:

- The written description, or the outline that would provide the details of the scenario;
- The characters, or the participants whose role is to act the described scenes;
- The place, or the settings within which the scenario will be acted out;
- And the things that will happen, or the actions that will be performed.

In order to give this analysis a technical aspect as related to its field, a more detailed listing of the play's components, provided by Carol Karton (2003) might,

better, reflect the essential elements that can further be used as a basis for building up the methodology based on scenarios.

### **1.2.Components of a Play**

There are many basic components that make up a play:

- Script: the written version of the play.
- Cast: the group of actors who will take part in the play.
- Setting: the time and place that the story occurred.
- Monologue: a speech a character gives to the audience.
- Dialogue: the conversation between actors.
- Audience: the people watching the performance.
- Stage: the place where the play is performed.
- Stage directions: the words in parentheses or italics in a script that are not meant to be read but to be acted out by a performer. (Karton, 2003, p. 45)

For the present research the script will be the presented materials as the designed units of work containing language data and the detailed descriptions of the intended situations the learning process will go through. The cast will be the participants or the stakeholders who will perform the script; both the teacher and the learners will be requested to play a role. The monologue and the dialogue will appear in the interaction that should take place as a reaction to the presented situations. The audience will be constituted of the cast themselves. The stage will be the classroom where the teaching/learning process will take place. Finally, the stage directions will appear as both the prior and simultaneously teacher's given explanations and directions to the learners as to clear up the whole working

environment by determining the initial situation and some of the possible paths learners can select when performing the scenarios.

More technical definitions of the term had been provided by encyclopaedic dictionaries as to highlight a sharper link of the term to the world of theatre and movie making. Encyclopaedia Britannica defined “scenario” as:

In film making, original idea for a film translated into a visually oriented text. The scenario plan gives the mood of each image and its relationship with the other shots in the sequence. The writer of the shooting script sets up each individual camera shot according to the camera directions that are given in the scenario. (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2010)

The concise Oxford Companion to the Theatre provided a much more detailed technical definition of the term as being:

..., skeleton plot of the *commedia dell'arte* play, the term replacing sometime in the early 18th century the older word *sogetto*. These are not such synopses as might be drawn up by an author for his written drama, nor are they identical with the Elizabethan platt; they were theatrical documents prepared for the use of a professional company by its leader, or by an enthusiastic amateur admirer of the *commedia dell'arte* style, and consisted of a scene-by-scene résumé of the action, together with notes on locality and special effects. Their informal elasticity allowed the insertion of extraneous business (the *burla* or *lazzo*) at the discretion— or according to the ability—of the actors. The term, whose plural in English is now scenarios, is commonly used today for the script of a film or the synopsis of a musical play. (Hartnoll and Found, 1996)

Both definitions had provided important features of the term scenario that might be used later as solid foundation of the hypothesis in question. Those features can be summarized as follows:

- Scenario is a visually oriented text of the original idea.
- It gives the mood of scenes.
- It determines the relationships between the scenes.
- It contains actions, directions and special effects.
- It is informally elastic.

The last feature will be demonstrated later as the core distinguishing characteristic of the teaching/learning methodology based on the scenario concept.

### **1.3.Scenario as a Concept**

Away from dictionaries' definitions, the term scenario had been handled by a wide range of authors as being applied to their fields of interest or adopted by them because of its appropriateness to their fields of study.

Related to the world of art, some authors draw a distinction of the scenario as being the component which is correctly applied only to that part of the photoplay manuscript which describes the development of the plot, scene by scene and situation by situation (Leeds and Esenwein, n.d.). ; Leeds and Esenwein noted that the complete script of the photoplay is composed of three parts: Synopsis, Cast of Characters and Scenario and sometimes a fourth part, called the Scene-Plot. They argued that the complete story is swiftly outlined in the synopsis, but the scenario it is told – that is, worked out – in action. The continuity of action; often called the continuity (Leeds and Esenwein, n.d.)

From another perspective, scenario has been viewed with the futurists' eyes as related to the concept of planning in a variety of fields. Scenarios, then, were defined as narrative descriptions of the future (Khan and Wiener, 1967) or as consistent and coherent descriptions of alternative hypothetical futures (Van Notten, 2006). Those future descriptions were related to two new typical features of the planning concept as to adhere appropriately to the attended fields. The first new feature, according to Khan (1967) is reflected in the attention focused on the causal processes and decision points. This former, will be discussed later when we will come to the application of the Scenario-Based methodology, as the learners' feedback and its effects on the peers' decisions. The second new feature appears in the temporal aspect introduced by Van Notten (2006) in the scenarios' reflection of different perspectives on past, present and future developments. Those developments can serve as a basis for action (Van Notten, 2006). This latter feature will be reflected in the use of learner's prior knowledge about the target language to design scenarios which should fit the situation.

Many other authors dealt with the concept of scenario in relation to planning. Though, in essence, not sharply different from each others' approaches to the term, we found it useful to highlight some of them as to provide a view on the topic's literature, given that the planning concept and its related features are in the core of our present work. In this respect, we refer to Katja Kirsch's work: *A review of Scenario Planning Literature* (2004), in which the author provided some definitions of the term as they are chronologically reordered in what will follow. Scenarios are:

plausible descriptions of future conditions with which the organization could be faced. (Becker, 1989, p 41)

a script-like characterization of a possible future presented in considerable detail, with special emphasis on causal connections, internal consistency, and correctness. (Schoemaker, 1991, pp. 549-550)

a tool for ordering one's perceptions about alternative future environments in which one's decision might be played out. (Schwartz, 1998, p. 378)

Moreover, what might be more appropriate to our research is Kirsch's distinction between two visions of scenarios. The first one sees scenarios as a picture of the future at a certain point in time (similar to a photograph). This first vision was lately demonstrated, by Van Notten (2006), among the micro characteristics of a scenario as the Product, contrasted with the Process which corresponds to Kirsch's second vision to scenarios as showing the evolution of circumstances leading to a specific future (similar to a film) (Kirsch, 2004).

Kirsch's second vision would be of great importance to our research, since the intended product in our case – motivation – will, more, be observed through the process itself than being noticed as a final result.

#### **1.4. The Origins of the Term Scenario**

The origin of the word scenario is from the Latin word *scaenarium*, from *scaena*; which means scene. The scene is a single piece of action that happens in one place, involving people in performing actions (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2005). It is, also, the place of occurrence of present or past, fictional or real events (Oxford Dictionary Online).

Basically, according to the above cited definitions of the term scenario one can argue that it belonged, ultimately, to the world of art. The term was originally used in the context of such performing arts as theatre and film (Van Notten, 2006, p.

69). However, because of its adaptability, the word scenario had moved to as different domains as it had proved to be appropriately applicable to them. According to Merriam Webster's Dictionary of English Usage the word was first encountered in 1967. Scenario first attracted attention as a vogue word in the late 1960's, not long after it had crept out of theatre and visual arts parlance into use by politicians and government officials and by the journalists who report what politicians and governmental officials say and do (Merriam Webster's Dictionary of English Usage, 1994).

Yet, the use of the term scenario goes as far back as the 1950s, when it was initially used in the military context in the U.S. Air Force and then by Herman Kahn, who was the first to use the term in a business context (Von der Gracht, 2008, p. 69). According to Van Notten, Kahn adopted the term because of the emphasis it contains on storytelling, but its use varies. It was used in the U.S. military strategic planning with the RAND Corporation<sup>1</sup>; in French spatial planning at DATAR<sup>2</sup>; in General Electric and Royal Dutch Shell's corporate planning procedures.etc. Today, scenarios are used in a wide range of contexts: by small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), to regional and national foresight studies, to environmental assessments for public policy (Van Notten, 2006, p.70)

### **1.5.The Use of the Term Scenario**

As far as the scope of the present research is concerned, it will be time and energy consuming to attempt to cover the use of the term as it is used in the real world. Hence, the emphasis will be put on the application of the term scenario to

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<sup>1</sup> The RAND Corporation is nonprofit institution that helps improve policy and decision-making thought research and analysis.

<sup>2</sup> Délégation Interministérielle à l'aménagement du Territoire et à l'Attractivité Régionale.

the field of teaching and learning methodologies and more specifically to language classes.

In this respect, Ogilvy (2006, p. 22) suggested three uses of scenarios: to provoke strategic conversation; to stimulate genuinely new visionary thinking; and as a motivator for getting unstuck. He draws interesting parallels between the applications of scenarios to business from one side and education from the other. These uses would be of great benefit for our research in the senses that provoking strategic conversations might be paralleled with the warming up techniques to attract the learners' interest to what will be presented. Stimulating genuinely new visionary thinking might be paralleled with the use of brainstorming to provide learners free opportunities to extrapolate about the presented discussion. And lastly, the key concept of this research (Motivation) which would be the expected effect of the scenarios' use.

Iversen (2006) on his turn draws attention to three main uses: developing shared knowledge, strengthening public discourse, and supporting decisions. Yet, he distinguishes between two manners of developing and using scenarios. The first one consists in developing scenarios which tends to identify the actions to be taken by the different actors, in case those scenarios are to be realized. He argues those scenarios should be used to project the "perfect future" for a given subject. Those futures are the Normative Scenarios used by organizations which have a very clear set of goals they wish to pursue without too much debate on the uncertainties of the future (Iversen, 2006, p. 107).

The second "Exploratory Scenarios" created in order to understand just how different the future may become and what may drive these changes (Iversen, 2006,

p. 111). Iversen argued will be more appropriate for education which is full of uncertainties.

However, this latter use might be appropriate for education in its macro dimension i.e. when dealing with planning for long term curriculum developments. The first use will, then, be more highlighted, in that it is more likely to enhance the learners' motivation and to provide a suitable immersive environment in which learners may take part into performing the identified actions.

Sparrow (2002) suggested four contemporary uses of the term as related to a variety of fields: *Analyzing sensitivity* in cash flow management, risk assessment, or project management, which is of little interest to the teaching learning deals; *Defining who is to do what* during a particular event as a contingency plan in military or civil emergency planning, which can be applied to our case study when we come to designing the scenarios and determining the roles' attribution inside the classroom. The third use applied, too, as a contingency plan, but to decision making in corporate or public policy. A last use which was argued to be the basis for much of the interest of scenarios for education, regarding scenarios as more exploratory so that a scenario is less a strategy and more a coherently structured speculation (Van Notten, 2006, p.70), it emphasized the descriptive use of scenarios over the prescriptive planning one. Though, the discussion was not always a matter of consensus (e.g. Godet and Roubelat, 1996) (Van Notten, 2006).

Under the narrowed scope of our research, the use of the term scenario will be limited to the projected visions of the future that may stimulate the learners' involvement in performing or acting the suggested scenes in the target language. In other words, learners will be immersed in some problem-based contexts - which require their participation to give a solution to situations - that are likely to happen

in the future. Provided with some guidance or paths to select, learners will be required to provide their own.

## **2. Scenario-Based Instruction**

As its name suggests Scenario-Based instruction is a process that takes place within a scenario framework i.e. a teaching learning methodology that employs the characteristics of a scenario to create a suitable environment for language learning.

### **2.1. Definition of Scenario-Based Instruction**

Kindley (2002) defined Scenario-Based learning as learning that occurs in a context, situation or social framework. Such learning requires the actors (teachers and learners) to go beyond the classroom walls and to escape the usual, traditional rules governing the teachers/learners interactions. Scenario-Based learning is based on the concept of situated cognition which is the idea that knowledge can't be known and fully understood independent of its context (Kindley, 2002). In this sense, Scenario-Based learning is considered as an advanced learning paradigm which assists with both student motivation and the uptake of skills (Stewart and Symonds, 2009). Stewart and Symonds highlighted the definition offered by The University of London:

Scenario-Based learning puts the student in a situation or context and exposes them to issues, challenges and dilemmas and asks them to apply knowledge and practice skills relevant to the situation. The student navigates through by choosing options and is given feedback based upon their choice. (Stewart and Symonds, 2009)

If we come to analyze this definition we can extract some key concepts that would appropriately constitute the basic foundation of Scenario-Based

methodology, those concepts will be developed through the chapters of this work as related to the three main variables herein dealt with i.e. Scenario-Based Instruction, Motivation and Business English teaching. Those key concepts could be summarized as follows:

- Situation or context.
- Issues, challenges and dilemmas.
- Prior knowledge and skills.
- Options, paths or choices.
- Feedback.

From a different application of the concept, Kindley adopted a well-known golf instructor's vision to draw an interesting parallel to the nature of learning: Scenario-Based learning suggests that learning is a natural byproduct of authentic activities that are common to the community of practice in which the learner is involved (Kindley, 2002). It means that, no matter what the learner wants to learn or even though without the intention to take part in a learning process, learning happens through the authentic actions the learner performs. In fact, the golf instructor suggested that there's little the expert can do in the way of teaching the learner particular motions of the swing (Kindley, 2002). The practitioner is in charge of performing actions and movements to fit with game's rules and to respond to peers' actions. The role of the expert, then, will be limited to introducing the game rules and to provide guidance when needed. In this respect, learning has to be experiential and feedback based; only a handful of basic principles are involved. The same goes, he said, for any and all kinds of learning. It's about learning, not about golf (Kindley, 2002).

However, the application of such vision to language classes would radically change the role of the teacher and limit his or her scope of action and responsibility. Learners, too, are likely to feel abandoned and without any support to assume that responsibility. The situation would certainly resemble a professional real life context to a certain extent, if the necessary conditions meet, but the learners wouldn't be ready to face it since they still do not realize the role they have to play.

## **2.2. Use of Scenario-Based Instruction**

As the use of the term scenario had been introduced to different domains from that of movies and theatre, Scenario-Based instruction, as a methodological tool, found its implementation in several fields. Mainly concerned with the teaching and learning processes for a variety of subjects, it had yet proved to be fruitful for many other concerns such as planning and decision making etc. However, the focus of this research is to analyze the former use and the effect it may have within a business English class, some aspects of the latter would be highlighted as related to the learners' attitudes towards the presented scenarios.

According to Stewart and Symonds (2009) scenario based learning is similar to the experiential model of learning within which learning occurs because we immerse ourselves in a situation in which we are forced to perform (Stewart and Symonds, 2009). Yet, this model requires a sharp awareness from the learners' part since they, voluntarily, immerse themselves in that situation within which they force themselves to perform in the right way in order to learn. Within a business English class, such a model may increase the learners' anxiety and influence badly on their motivation; since performing in the real appropriate way is not always an easy task.

Cobb (1997) used the term “experientially real” in relation to the teaching of mathematics. He argued that it is essential to delineate the scenario as it is interactively constituted for pedagogical purposes in the classroom with the teacher’s guidance (Cobb et al, 1997, p 160). Yet, Cobb explained that only the starting point should be experienced as real by the students, not that they should necessarily involve realistic situations. Actually, what might be of a great benefit for our work is to provide a realistic starting point in such a way that learners can use it as a story’s initial situation to create their own developmental scenes and the ends they wish to set for their scenarios, and those latter are not necessarily real.

The use of scenarios in language classes led some authors to advice for a reconstruction of the classrooms according to the world of art’s standards. According to Bannink (2002) the L2 class might be reframed as a stage for performance which includes events like storytelling, conversations, language play, role play, chorus work, etc. (Bannink, 2002, p. 285). Bannink allotted to the teacher the role of stage director; she argued that the teacher should be ready to act out several scenarios, to try various parts, and to introduce new protagonists when needed. Prescribing actions and planning “unplanned discourse” should be avoided. Instead, the teacher should direct and inspire the student-actors when playing such a role, and free the stage to the learners to impose their own style on the script and enact a variety of participant roles (Bannink, 2002).

Gee (2004) demonstrated an important use of scenarios for language teaching through gaming. He suggested the placing of the basic skills of a tutorial in a scenario that is just a simplified version of the real game. He argued that this allows learners to see how these basic skills fit into the game as a whole system and how different skills integrate with each other (Gee, 2004, p. 64).

Similarly, Kindley noted that a lesson designed around an interactive problem-based scenario would involve some kind of narrative, story or “setting”, some kind of tutor guidance and feedback where appropriate, assessment components (quizzes etc.) and the ability for students to make decisions which may have consequences in their scenario (Kindley, 2002).

Hence, in our case, scenarios would constitute a new highly innovative methodology against the traditional ways of teaching Business English in our universities. Those latter appear to decontextualize language from its real interactive use and enclose it between the walls of the rote vocabulary memorizing.

### **2.3.Origins of Scenario-Based Instruction: Situated Learning**

To investigate the origins of Scenario-Based instruction, an analysis of the above mentioned definitions and key concepts would be of a great help. Referring to Kindley’s definition, Scenario-Based learning can be said to derive from the situated learning theory. Proponents of this theory suggest that both effective /ineffective learning and motivation are socially imbedded, however, it is not imbedding that makes learning effective, it is the quality of the social framework and the activity carried out within that framework that determine learning outcomes (Lantolf and Genung, 2002). The roots of Scenario-Based learning in relation to language acquisition might, thus, be found in the concept of language socialization. The striking relation between individual development and society has, for long, triggered controversial discussions among sociolinguists and psychologists. Scenario-Based instruction as a methodological tool which combines both society as a whole and individual as an integrated part of it may be argued to derive from the activity theory which has been elaborated as a unified theory of individual and

societal behavior (Engestrom, 1999, p. 19). The creation of social contexts in the language classroom in the form of scenarios can be paralleled with the culturally created artifacts (physical or symbolic tools) and the social relationships that play the role of mediation which is at the core of the Activity Theory. According to Engestrom (1999, p. 29), it is this notion of mediation that breaks down the Cartesian walls that isolate the individual mind from the culture and society (Lantolf and Genung, 2002). According to Ehrman and Dornyei (1998) Activity Theory, Situated Learning Theory and many other socioconstructivist theories have sprung from a common source. They find their inspiration in the work of Vygotsky and A.N. Leontiev.

#### **2.4.The Link between Scenario-Based Learning and Context**

From the above mentioned links made between the concept of Scenario-Based on the one hand and situated learning and language socialization concepts on the other. It becomes apparent that the core component of such a methodology is the “context”. This latter, within which learning is to be situated and language socialized.

The social context as a concept had been, for long, at the core of the sociological debates. Applied linguists too had shown a great interest to the concept as linked to the different methodologies applied to the field of language acquisition. The relationship between human beings and the social context within which they seek to realize their intentions, aspirations, needs and desires had been among the major themes of the sociological debates (Sealey and Carter, 2004). Sealey and Carter noted that this social context which is made up of political and legal

relations, institutions, distributions of wealth and income and so on may frustrate or enable people's efforts to achieve what they want.

Hence, it can be argued that the social context is a highly influential factor on the humans' behaviour, since the social relations are viewed as symbolic enactments and performances carried off by social actors (Sealey and Carter, 2004, p34), and language is regarded as a key element in social interaction. Scenario-Based instruction would, then, be the frame work within which the social context is to be recreated in such a way to promote the social interaction in the target language.

### **2.5.Scenario-Based Learning versus Traditional Learning**

Scenario-Based learning differs from the traditional learning in the essence of the approach each of them held towards learning. Kindley (2002) compared the traditional and Scenario-Based approaches to learning and summarized the differences between the characteristics of each one in the table below:

Table 1: A Comparison of Traditional and Scenario-Based Learning Approaches

Characteristics	Traditional (Linear/Systematic)	Approach	Scenario-Based (Iterative/Intuitive)	Approach
Scope	Deductive: experts determine the scope of learning by examining the subject and its components and establish right and wrong answers		Inductive: stakeholders assemble to share experiences about the subject event, create indicators of successful outcomes, and establish descriptions of successful and unsuccessful behaviours	
Focus	The object or subject to be mastered		The learner's behaviour	
Learning objectives	Listed and prioritized objectives based on judgments about knowledge and skills required Static; based on the lesson's building blocks until course revision		Outcomes of learning event based on use of device or interaction Dynamic around the flow of the scenario experience; particular objectives dependent on paths and review of outcomes Not fully known until after the lesson	
Nature of learning and structure of learning experience	Hierarchical, linear, rule-based <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• branching points</li> <li>• instructor control</li> <li>• examples/contrived context</li> <li>• few paths</li> <li>• low data availability</li> <li>• grading</li> <li>• right and wrong answers</li> <li>• scoring</li> </ul>		Systemic, non-linear with multiple feedback, evaluative <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• decision points</li> <li>• learner control</li> <li>• realistic context</li> <li>• controlled and multiple paths</li> <li>• high data availability</li> <li>• advice and guidance</li> <li>• problematic solutions</li> <li>• performance feedback</li> </ul>	
Learning styles	Can be multiple, but usually less kinesthetic		Usually highly visual and highly kinesthetic	
Design process	Systematic prototyping		Action research	
Subject types best suited to	Relatively simple, well-known, and well-structured topics often with high knowledge requirements Knowledge-focused		Complex topics with high interaction or practice requirements Performance-Focused	

As far as the teaching conditions in our universities are concerned, the traditional approach appears to be more likely to fit the teaching/learning of business English, since the objective is the acquisition of the business vocabulary to be used in the professional life, given that the learners had been studying English from the 8<sup>th</sup> grade in the middle school. However, a deep analysis of the situation would show that the majority of the learners are far from such a proficiency level that enables us to set the above mentioned objective. Scenario-Based approach would be more appropriate to reach an objective such as: motivating learners to adhere to an English class by adopting real life business contexts.

### **3. The Effect on Scenario-Based Instruction**

When we come to the application inside the classroom, we can argue that Scenario-Based instruction is a new advanced paradigm in language teaching (Stewart and Symonds, 2009). However, to make things clearer and to avoid concepts' confusions that may take place within a the practitioners' minds due to surface observations which may lead to the conclusion that no differences can be drawn between the Scenario-Based and Task-Based approaches to language teaching, in the sense that acting a scenario is, in a way or another, the execution of tasks contained in the scenario itself, or as might be said that some tasks, as well, such as "Role-play" involve the scenarios' characteristics. A deep analysis of both concepts is required before drawing such a conclusion or an opposing one. The difference between Scenario-Based and Task-Based approaches to language teaching lays in the nature of their basic concepts themselves i.e. the scenario and the task.

Before going further in this analogy, it would be helpful to draw attention to the definition of the task. Nunan (2004) defined the pedagogical task as contrasted with the real-life task as:

... is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end. (Nunan, 2004)

From Nunan's definition it becomes clear that the two concepts are far from being similar to one another. One can, thus, draw out the following differences:

- The task is piece of classroom work.
- The scenario is a projection of possible future that takes place in the classroom.
- The task involves learners in comprehending and manipulating the target language.
- The scenario involves learners in self-innovative actions to use the target language.
- The task's outcomes are clearly defined as knowledge to be mastered.
- The scenario's outcomes depend on the participants' decisions and feedback.
- The task involves the reproduction of the presented data in a prescribed framework.

- The scenario involves innovative (unexpected) productions based on the learners' skills and feedbacks.
- The task is a communicative act in its own right that learners should go through from the beginning to the end.
- The scenario is used to create communicative situations that learners can decide either to achieve or to put an end to by choosing the positive or the negative path.

#### **4. A Useful Combination of Methodological Conception**

Theoretically speaking, it would be highly difficult for learners who have little knowledge of the target language to go through a Scenario-Based course; involving learners in problem solving scenarios which require the use of the target language in selecting among multiple choices solutions, according to which varying feed backs will be generated among the other participants, and responses should fit accordingly, such a process would necessitate a minimum knowledge of the target language forms.

Kindley (2002) adopted a learning analogy from a basketball coach to highlight the efficiency of Scenario-Based and traditional approaches combination. He argued that designing learning solutions should take place with both approaches in mind. All training, he suggested, requires a blended, performance-based, and reinforced solution to be successful (Kindley, 2002). Yet, a categorization process should be applied to determine the subject areas that require very dense knowledge development and those that require higher levels of interaction and practice.

In this sense, we should determine Business English, within the framework of our research, as being highly interactive and practical subject area: Thing that

would lead to the use of Scenario-Based instruction in order to achieve the set objectives. However, as suggested by Kindley: before a learner can engage in a scenario, he or she needs some basic subject knowledge. Neither approach is all that useful without the other (Kindley, 2002); some aspects of the traditional approach will be incorporated so that to provide the learners with the basic subject knowledge they need to appropriately adhere to the presented scenarios.

Hence, it would be beneficial to construct learning aids as based on traditional approaches to language teaching, in such a way to fit the participants' different learning strategies. Though, it is highly difficult to determine those learning strategies within a mixed abilities classroom, it would be helpful to provide a divergent set of learning aids based on authentic materials such as conversations, texts, activities etc.

Yet, since the goal of the present research has been narrowed to the investigation of the effect of Scenario-Based instruction, the traditional methodologies incorporated would be of little contribution. A small percentage will then be allotted to those latter either on time concern or for the designed materials as well. Moreover, the scope of this work is limited to the study of Scenario-Based instruction as a motivation tool. It sets as an objective the degree of participants' adherence to the presented scenarios and their participation, innovation and personal behaviour towards those latter. Henceforth, language forms in the sense of correctness would be of secondary interest.

Given the above mentioned conditions, a prior presentation of the learning aids would take place under the form activities or a tasks etc. that would remain available to the learners either as a word map drawn on the board, a grammatical rule on their note books or any other presented materials during the class in such a

way to provide learners with a gap filling tool at their fingertips to enable them to use those appropriate forms of the target language in solving the problems in hand.

### **Conclusion**

As it has been noted earlier, the scenario- based methodology was not born from scratch. Its roots go far deep to the most influential sociological theories and its sap is generated by the social context within which it is strongly embedded. Consequently, it is the creation of this context which makes the method so influential, and it is, too, the main reason of our choice to test the scenario-based methodology in the setting of our research. Scenario-based methodology had been advocated as being an advanced paradigm in the field of teaching and its application to the field of language teaching had found a sound response among many scholars. The theoretical literature dealt with in this chapter is meant to enlighten the way toward the practical use of scenario-based instruction and more specifically its effect on learners' motivation as related to business English classes.

## CHAPTER TWO: MOTIVATION

### Introduction

Theorizing about and designing teaching methodologies aims at improving the teaching and learning processes. As a matter of fact, neither teaching nor learning can take place in the appropriate conditions unless both teachers and learners are motivated to undertake them. Experiencing different methodologies and motivational techniques in language classes aims at fitting learners' needs, goals and expectations from attending those classes. Whereas teachers' motivation is a wide field of investigation that needs to be deeply studied, the present chapter will only be dealing with learners' motivation in order to fit the research framework. The chapter will then be limited to: (1) surveying the theoretical horizon of the psychological conception of motivation through the different motivation theories and views that stressed the factors involved in the study i.e. learners' needs, goals and expectations...etc; (2) investigating language learning motivation and the most influential studies made in the field; and (3) treating manipulating motivation according to what we believe appropriate to the boundaries of the work in hand.

### 1. Definition of Motivation

The English word motivation has its etymological roots in the Latin word *movere*, which means "to move". Although no consensual definition of motivation exists in scientific psychology, the definitions provided by most theorists rest firmly on the notion of movement (Lee, 2005). Researchers seem to agree that motivation is responsible for determining human behaviour by energising it and giving it direction (Dornyei, 1998). Motivation is the force behind behaviour and provides an explanation for why people do things (Lee, 2005). Eggert (1999) draws a

transparent analogy to a jellyfish. He noted that motivation is something that everyone knows what it is but it is difficult to describe or define (Eggert, 1999).

Motivation is a hypothetical construct, meaning that it is an abstraction, not an overt entity that can be seen with the eyes. That is, motivation cannot be observed, but its effects may be observed. (Encyclopedia of Educational Psychology). Consequently, according to Eggert (1999) motivation has given psychologists some real problems. He argued that in an absolute sense motivation per se does not exist - it can only be inferred by looking at behaviour, quantifying changes in behaviour or by inviting individuals to talk about their needs or goals and why they do what they do. The situation was a bit complicated, Eggert argued. If you cannot see or feel it, it becomes difficult to measure; if you can't measure it in some way, how do you know you have found it? (Eggert, 1999)

Tileston (2004, p2) relates motivation to the drives to do something. The internal and external factors that stimulate desire and energy in people to be continually interested in and committed to a job, role, or subject, and to exert persistent effort in attaining a goal. (businessdictionary.com). Tileston noted that motivation causes us to get up in the morning and go to work. Motivation drives us to study new things, and motivation encourages us to try again when we fail (Tileston, 2004). It is the energizer of behaviour and mother of all action. Motivation results from the interactions among conscious and unconscious factors such as the (1) intensity of desire or need, (2) incentive or reward value of the goal, and (3) expectations of the individual and of his or her significant others (businessdictionary.com). Those factors will be explained through the different motivational theories in this chapter.

## 2. Types of Motivation

Theorists have distinguished between different types of motivation. This distinction mainly based on the source of motivation itself or on the attitudes people have toward the task they are performing or required to perform, generated the sets of dichotomies summarised below:

### 2.1. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

As a source categorisation, intrinsic motivation is a motivation that comes from within. It implies engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction inherent in the activity (e.g. Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Students doing their homework because they enjoy it and find that learning new things is interesting and satisfying are said to be intrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 42). Intrinsic motivation can be defined as a person's involvement in an activity in order to learn or to find out new things from his/her participation. (Stavrou, 2008)

In contrast to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation refers to a broad array of behaviours having in common the fact that activities are engaged in not for reasons inherent in them but for instrumental reasons (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Extrinsic motivation refers to behaviours aiming to attain a reward or benefit, rather than for enjoyment of the activity itself (Deci, 1971). Extrinsically motivated behaviours are undertaken to attain an end state that is separate from the actual behaviour. According to Reeve (2002) it was thought that behaviours performed with a lack of choice were the only type of extrinsically motivated behaviours, so that all extrinsically motivated behaviours were evoked by contingencies. However, research and thinking by Deci, Ryan and their colleagues (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991) have put forth more complex typology of extrinsic motivation where some

types of extrinsically motivated acts involve self-determination and choice (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Forms of extrinsic motivation vary in the extent to which they are autonomous or controlling, referring to a more self-determined aspect and external regulated form, respectively (Reeve, 2002).

## **2.2. Integrative and Instrumental Motivation**

Integrative motivation is about social or interpersonal reasons for second language learning or minority language activity. Integrative motives reflect a desire to be like, or identify with members of a particular language community. Gardner (1985) defines integrative motive as a composite construct made up of three main components: (1) integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages, and attitudes toward the L2 community, (2) attitudes toward the learning situation (comprising attitudes toward the teacher and the course) and (3) motivation (i.e., effort, desire, and attitudes toward learning).

Instrumental motivation, however, is about the utilitarian aspect of the language. Some people may want to learn a second language to gain social recognition and status, economic openings and advantages. Learners may acquire a second language to find a job or earn money, further career prospects, pass examinations, help fulfil the demands of their job, or assist their children in bilingual schooling.

## **3. Motivation Theories**

Investigating motivation systematically involves us in studying the theoretical literature of this concept. Yet, a panoramic view of the issue clearly demonstrates that covering the different theories that dealt with motivation would trigger any researcher into the endless routes of the psychological mazes. Dornyei

(1996) points out that motivation theories in general seek to explain no less than the fundamental question of why humans behave as they do, and therefore it would be naive to assume any simple and straightforward answer; indeed, every different psychological perspective on human behaviour and, thus, in general psychology it is not the lack but rather the abundance of motivation theories which confuses the scene (Dornyei, 1998). In that sense, Eggert (1999) noted that so many motivation theories exist because of the following reasons:

- Motivation is an artificial construct so there is no comprehensive way of examining it.
- An individual goal can be reached in any number of different ways - or motivations.
- A single goal can satisfy a whole host of different needs - and thus motivations.
- People are different in their needs - and thus their motivations are different.
- Individuals frequently change their aspirations and their needs - and consequently their motivation differs in each situation.

Different theories have been developed to account for different aspects of the concept of motivation (Eggert, 1999). Only the most influential mainstream psychological constructs of motivation will be surveyed.

### 3.1.Content Theories

Also called Need Theories, they consider human needs as the essential element upon which the determination of motivation is built.

#### 3.1.1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

This theory is based on the concept of “need gratification” as a fundamental aspect in human motivation (Maslow, 1943). Dr Amr A. Osman in a designed lecture for the Contemporary Theories of Motivation Module summarized Maslow's theory assumptions as follows:

- Need hierarchy highlights order in need satisfaction.
- A minimal physiological need is a main precondition for uprising need satisfaction.
- All humans strive to move up the hierarchy and attain higher needs.
- A satisfied need ceases to motivate behaviour at that need level
- Persistent employee needs dissatisfaction leads to job dissatisfaction and accordingly performance deterioration.
- Needs are never fully or completely satisfied
- Years of job practice reflect upon need intensification
- Unmet needs are more motivating than needs which have been satisfied

Maslow's theory suggests a pyramidal hierarchy of needs. The pyramid is set on the most basic needs, at the foot. Those physiological instinctive needs are essential for the continuation of life such as breathing, drinking, eating, sleeping and sex. Once those needs satisfied, we move up to a higher level that concerns safety. This level includes aspects such as personal safety from danger and the need for protection from any kind of threats: physical, mental or even financial. The next

higher level represents our social needs. Love and belongingness to a group within which, one may have friends and colleagues, share feelings of joy or sadness, hopes, fears, concerns and aspirations, and have interpersonal relationships.

The fourth level of Maslow's pyramid consists of esteem needs that relate to need for recognition of identity and individuality, enjoying a personal status and confidence in one's capacities. This allows us to be ourselves and express our personality (Eggert, 1999). The highest level of the pyramid concerns self actualisation needs. They refer to one's desire to express themselves creatively and to develop one's potential fully (Brophy, 2004, p.6). This is our need to be the best that we can be, with all the talents and gifts that we have (Eggert, 1999, p.15).

According to Eggert (1999) the Hierarchy of Needs' Theory is based on the premise that individuals require satisfaction on ascending levels of need. Maslow, who developed the theory, suggested that when one level of satisfaction is achieved another level of need becomes important, rather like an ascending staircase (Eggert, 1999, p.11). Brophy (2004, p.6) noted that higher needs may not even be recognised unless lower needs are satisfied. This point was the major criticism addressed to Maslow's theory because it sets a clear limit to the human activity in case the basic needs are not satisfied. Gorman (2003, p.61) stated that Maslow himself recognised that some high achievers would go without these basic needs for long periods of time in order to devote themselves to their work. Borkowski (2005, p. 109) also noted that Maslow used the example of the starving artist pursuing his creativity needs (e.g., self-actualization) while ignoring physiological needs.

### 3.1.2. Existence Relatedness Growth (ERG) Theory

To address the criticisms of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, in the late 1960's, Alderfer (1972) introduced an alternative needs hierarchy, referred to as the ERG theory (Borkowski, 2005). Apparently, Alderfer's hierarchy was mainly based on Maslow's model, it grouped Maslow's two basic levels (physiological and safety needs) in what it labelled Existence needs. Existence refers to an individual's concern with basic materials and physiological existence requirements, such as food, water, pay, fringe benefits and working conditions (Borkowski, 2005, p.109). Maslow's recognition needs were labelled Relatedness needs. They include a person's need to interact with other people, receive public recognition, and feel secure around people (i.e. interpersonal safety) (Ahlstrom and Bruton, 2009). And the last component Growth Needs grouped Maslow's two highest levels (Self-esteem and Self-actualization). It refers to an individual's intrinsic need to be creative, and to make useful and productive contributions, including personal development with opportunities for personal growth (Borwski, 2009, p.109).

However, based on Maslow's model, the ERG theory was a criticism directed toward its vision. Ahlstrom and Bruton (2009, p.203) noted that the ERG theory argues that behaviour is motivated simultaneously by more than one need level. Unlike Maslow's model, the ERG theory includes a frustration-regression process whereby those who are unable to satisfy a higher need become frustrated and regress back to the next lower need level (Ahlstrom and Bruton, 2009, p.203). They concluded that ERG theory allowed for more complex models of compensation to be developed, which resulted in the recognition that a mixture of needs must be addressed.

### 3.1.3. Herzberg's Two-Factor (Motivation-Hygiene) Theory

The Motivation-Hygiene Theory is one of the most controversial theories of motivation because of two unique features (Jain, 2005, p.122). Frederick Herzberg developed his Two-Factor Theory, also known as the Motivation-Hygiene Theory, from a study designed to test the concept that people have two sets of needs: (1) avoidance of unpleasantness and (2) a personal growth (Borkowski, 2005, p. 111). McKenna (2000, p. 97) noted that Herzberg's theory is consistent with Maslow's and McClelland's theories. It is based on considerable empirical evidence and is built on the principle that people are motivated towards what makes them feel good and away from what makes them feel bad.

Herzberg and his co-workers distinguished between two sets of factors that affect people's behaviour within their professional environment. These were hygiene factors and motivating factors. "Hygiene factors create dissatisfaction if they are not present. If they are present in a job setting, dissatisfaction will be lower, but satisfaction will not be high. Motivators are related to high satisfaction and willingness to work harder. When they are present, these job factors may induce more efforts, but if they are absent, they will not produce dissatisfaction in most people" (Tosi, Mero and Rizzo, 2000, p.133). McKenna (2000) argues that Herzberg research identifies motivators as factors producing good feelings in the work situation. By contrast, hygiene factors arouse bad feelings. The table below shows the basic elements of Herzberg theory.

Table 2: *Basic Elements of Two-Factor Theory (Tosi, Mero and Rizzo, 2000)*

<b>Hygiene Factors</b>	<b>Motivators</b>
Technical supervision	Responsibility
Interpersonal relations – Peers	Achievement
Salary	Advancement
Working conditions	The work itself
Status	Recognition
Company policy	Possibility of growth
Job security	
Interpersonal relations – Supervisor	

According to McKenna (2000) there is research evidence that is not entirely compatible with the findings of Herzberg. The following are illustrative of the criticisms made:

- Dissatisfaction, rather than satisfaction is associated with performance (March & Simon, 1958).
- Hygiene and motivators can both cause satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction (Wernimont, 1966).
- There is no recognition of the part played by the expectations people bring with them to the job. When expectations are not met, people can feel dissatisfied (Wernimont, 1966).
- Herzberg methodology – content analysis of recalled incidents by respondents- results into quite different findings from studies that use methods of measuring satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Hulin & Smith, 1967). McKenna (2000) noted that if a theory is dependent on a particular research method for its substance, as appears to be the case with Herzberg's theory, its validity could be considered questionable.

### 3.1.4. McClelland's Theory of Needs

McClelland proposed three needs which are important in organizational settings for understanding motivation. These needs include Achievement, Power and Affiliation (Jain, 2005, p.129). Two important concepts underlie this approach: (1) Motive and (2) The force of motives on behaviour. Tosi et al (2000), determined motives as an aspect of the personality that develops as the personality emerges. Motives are “affectively toned associated networks arranged in a hierarchy of strength and importance” within a person (McClelland, 1965).

Borkowski (2005) noted that McClelland believed that most persons have a combination of the three motivational needs, with some exhibiting a stronger tendency to one particular motivational need. She explained that: Achievement (n-Ach) is described as the need to excel or succeed; Power (n-Pow) is described as an individual's need to influence others; and Affiliation (n-Aff) is described as an individual's need to be liked and approved of by others.

McClelland argued that achievement, affiliation and power needs are learned rather than instinctive, and are thus inculcated by cultures and societies. Accordingly, he argued for developing training programs that strengthen these learned needs (Ahlstrom and Bruton, 2009, p.208).

Though McClelland's theory received an immense research support from around the world, the contrasting conditions between developing and developed countries opened the door to criticisms. Swain (n.d.) and Sinha (1984) believed that psychologist from India as well as from other developing countries were victims of the theory: they had what Sinha calls a duplication tendency to uncritically accept the theory (Swain, n.d., p.273). The point is that McClelland assessed a single

manifestation of achievement motivation in different countries. However, Swain argued that the nature and manifestation of achievement motivation varies from society to society.

Table 3: *Comparison of Content Theories of Motivation* (Nancy Borkowski, 2005, p. 122)

Herzberg's Factor Theory	Two- Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	Alfred's Theory	3-Need McClelland's 3-Need Theory
Motivators	Self-actualization Self-esteem	Growth	Achievement
Hygiene factors	Love	Relatedness	Power (influencing others) Affiliation (Exchange of warm feelings)
	Safety Physiological	Existence	

### 3.1.5. Content Theories' Evaluation

Questioning the usefulness of content theories to the context of our research, one might argue that learning English out of the English department in general and more precisely business English is highly motivated by the utilitarian role that English may play in the learners' professional lives. That means: what do learners need English for? Though clearly apparent, such a role may appear, to some learners, a long-term one that shouldn't be given great importance, at least for the time being. In that sense, comes the role of the teacher in analysing those needs behind which English should be given much more importance that learners think. Moreover, the role of the teacher should go far beyond to acknowledging those needs and making learners aware of them in a way that learners would feel free to decide, share, and assume the responsibilities of the teaching learning process.

### **3.2.Process Theories**

While content theories of motivation focus on the different needs people have and their importance and hierarchy within the individual, process theories of motivation focus rather on how those individual's needs are translated to behaviours. Aswathappa (2007, p.366) argued that process theories view motivation as an individual's decision to act so as to put forth some given level of effort. Among the most famous process theories are Expectancy Theory, Equity Theory and Goal Setting Theory.

#### **3.2.1. Expectancy Theory**

According to Gorman (2003), expectancy theory suggests that people's motivation to achieve a particular task derives from their expectation of a reward (p.64). Pintrich (2003) argues that expectancy components constitute a fundamental part of the motivation construct. He/she defines the expectancy components as being people's beliefs and opinions about their ability to control, perform, or accomplish a task (p.8). This means that learners' beliefs about their capability in performing, controlling and the quality of their performance plays a crucial role in motivating learners to start, control and keep up a certain patterns of behaviour. Learners are most likely to achieve highly through selecting what activity to perform, using the necessary abilities, and engagement and determination in the task if they hold strong beliefs about their capabilities and control over them (Pintrich, 2003).

### 3.2.2. Equity Theory

Tosi, Mero and Rizzo (2000, p. 152) noted that, different from other theories that explain motivation by intrapersonal comparisons (e.g. “what I have now” compared to “what I would like to have”), equity theory explains motivation by interpersonal comparisons (e.g. “what I have now” compared to “what others have”). That means that the concern in equity theory is “outcome justice”, or how you perceive organizational outcomes relative to the contributions that you, and others, make to gain them. In other words, equity theory focuses on how you evaluate your outcome relative to how you evaluate the outcomes of others. There are three key factors used in explaining and understanding motivation in equity theory: (1) Inputs, (2) Outcomes, (3) Referents (Adams, 1965).

### 3.2.3. Goal Setting Theory

Brophy (2004) noted that goals may be generally defined as “objectives or intended outcomes of planned sequences of behaviour” (p.7). He argued that a shift from considering motivation in terms of people’s needs to regarding it as the result of setting goals and objectives and trying different strategies to fulfil those goals has marked researches on motivation. According to Alderman (2004, p.19), learners’ beliefs about learning goals are important in understanding motivation: on the one hand those beliefs show how people consider their learning goals as the manifestation of their capabilities to achieve a specific task. On the other hand, they explain how far people think of their goals as pertaining to their learning history. Schunk and Zimmerman (2003) claim that learners’ evaluation of their performance according to the goals they have set, and their belief about their goals’ satisfactory fulfilment will provide them with a feeling of efficiency about continuing to

improve and being motivated to complete the tasks they are undertaking (p. 68). Moreover, Locke and Lathman (1994) explained that individuals will improve their performance when they have definite and stimulating goals, and they will most certainly be attentive to the activity and carry it on.

According to Alderman (2004) goal setting theory has distinguished between learning goals, known as mastery or task-involvement goals, and performance goals, known also as ego-involvement goals (Alderman, 2004; Brophy, 2004). Learning goals –mastery goals- refer to those goals learners set when they concentrate on learning what their teacher is teaching them through tasks; they want to have mastery over the abilities taught and improve their achievement in a task (Alderman, 2004; Brophy, 2004). On the other hand, performance goals are those goals learners set to keep a positive self-image, and give to others an image of capability (Brophy, 2004). They are goals which express general statements about why people perform an activity (Pintrich, 2003). According to Alderman (2004), performance goals relate to learners' perception of themselves as capable performers; they are goals that emphasise ability rather than effort, and they reflect what learners want to show others they are able to do and how they see their performance in comparison to others'.

Alderman (2004) claims that motivation is affected by goal setting because it gives people a purpose and an evaluation about their performance. Locke and Lathman (1994) assert that goal setting is important because learners are given the opportunity to set their learning goals, they are most likely to engage in fulfilling those goals and, moreover, it will considerably influence their performance.

### **3.2.4. Process Theories' Evaluation**

Evaluating process theories in a sense that fits the case of the present work, a strong link may be made between the three above mentioned basic elements (expectancy, equity and goal setting) and the concept of learners' decision-making upon which the scenario-based methodology is based. Involving learners in creating or adapting classroom activities (scenarios) is most likely to strengthen their beliefs about their ability to control and perform the task. Moreover, though mastery goals are more likely to be directed by the teacher and learners' feeling of control may only be a kind of follow-up attitude, learners maintaining control over performance goals would push them to achieve more in order to keep the image they want to show in the classroom. Those goals may change at any time during the class according to the different reactions peers have towards each others' contributions and thus maintain learners' attention.

Dealing with equity in scenario-based contexts may be a sensitive issue. Freeing the learners' participation and sharing decisions with them may negatively influence on those less-able learners' motivation and reduce their willingness to engage in classroom activities. In such situations, the teacher should redirect the interaction in a positive sense by limiting the learners' freedom and controlling the participation distribution.

## **4. Motivation and Language Learning**

Why is language learning motivation different from motivation in general? The question is meant to set the main features of language learning motivation as a distinguished concept on its own. Starting from the basic element, Dewey (1956, pp. 55-56) described the meaning of learning a language as follows:

Language is defined as the medium of expressing thought [...] language is primarily a social thing, a means by which we give our experiences to others and get theirs in return [...] when the language instinct is appealed to in a social way, there is a continual contact with ability. The result is that the child always has something in his mind to talk about, he has something to say; he has a thought to express, and a thought is not a thought unless it is one's own. (Nakata, 2006, p. 49)

There is no question that learning a foreign language is different to learning other subjects. This is mainly because of the social nature of such a venture. Language, after all, belongs to a person's whole social being: it is part of one's identity, and is used to convey this identity to other people. The learning of a foreign language involves far more than simply learning skills, or a system of rules, or a grammar; it involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner. (Williams, 1994; Dornyei, 1998)

Dornyei (1998) argues that due to the involvement of some sort of L2 identity and the incorporation of elements from the L2 culture, the motivational basis of language attainment is different from that of the mastery of other subject matters. L2 motivation contains personal and social dimensions as well as the environmental and cognitive factors in relation to learning which feature in current educational psychology (Nakata, 2006, p. 50). Nakata assumed that motivation in language learning, in contrast to other subjects, can be developed by interacting with others using the target language and be further dramatically developed through interactions with native speakers of the target language.

One comprehensive definition of language learning motivation is that of Crookes and Schmidt (1991), who state that such motivation consists of seven

elements: (1) interest, that sustains learners' curiosity; (2) relevance, that satisfies learners' needs; (3) expectancy of success or failure; (4) belief in forthcoming rewards; (5) decision to be involved; (6) persistence; and (7) high activity level. According to Oxford (1996) attitudes and beliefs clearly affect behaviours within this definition of language learning motivation. For example, a teacher who overcorrects the students can lower the expectation of success and destroy the possibility of reward, thus reducing the student's willingness to pay attention or to persist in language learning. If learners perceive the language activities as irrelevant or uninteresting, their level of activity and engagement will drop. Any negative attitude toward the target language or culture can also be detrimental to engagement, persistence, or activity level. (Oxford, 1996)

#### **4.1.The Importance of Motivation for Language Learning**

As already defined, motivation is the mother of all action. Motivation is important to language learning because it helps determine the extent of involvement in learning. High motivation spurs learners to interact with native speakers of the language, which in turn increases the amount of input learners receive (Krashen, 1982; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992). Motivation is linked with high-frequency use of language learning strategies (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). Motivation helps students maintain their language ability after students leave the classroom (Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, and Evers, 1987).

Motivation encourages greater overall effort on the part of learners thus greater success in language performance, both in general terms (Clément, Major, Gardner, and Smythe, 1977; Gardner, 1985; Samimy and Tabuse, 1991) and in specific skill areas (Genesee, 1978; Genesee and Hamayan, 1980; Tucker,

Hamayan, and Genesse, 1976). Yet the relationship between motivation and language performance is not identical for all languages in a study by Youssef (1984); results show a far stronger link for learners of French and German than for learners of Spanish (Okada, Oxford and Abo, 1996, p. 106)

#### **4.1.1. Motivation Studies in Language Learning**

Because of its importance to the educational settings, language learning motivation received a wide range of studies. Two distinguishing orientations, however, had directed the main researches made in the field. The essence of that distinction was argued through the difference between ESL and EFL contexts and was demonstrated over integrative and instrumental orientations of English learners' motivations.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) noted that language learning motivation can be divided into two types: integrative motivation – the desire to learn a language to integrate oneself with the target culture; and instrumental motivation – the desire to learn a language in order to meet a specific language requirement such as for employment (Nakata, 2006, p. 51). More precisely, integrative orientation relates to a positive disposition to learn about, interact with, or become closer to, the target language community, while instrumental orientation concerns the potential utilitarian value of target language proficiency, such as obtaining a better job or passing an examination (Gardner, 1985; Nakata, 2006).

Because of his social psychological approach which dominated language learning motivation studies until the 1990's, Nakata (2006, p. 51) argues that Gardner was considered a pioneer in the field of language learning motivation. Social psychological theory applied to language learning places central emphasis on

the social dimension and on the social implications of learning a second language. The essence of the theory lays in the perception of second language learning as a social problem rather than an individual problem.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) hypothesized that the integrative motive facilitates second language acquisition because it reflects active involvement in language study. This is because learning a second language requires the adoption of word sounds, pronunciations, word orders, and other behavioural and cognitive features that are part of another culture (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Nakata, 2006)

Following Gardner's social pattern, Norton (Norton Peirce, 1995; Norton, 2000) has sought to integrate the poststructuralist conceptions of identity and human agency by developing an enriched and productive notion of "investment." The starting point Norton used was the current conceptions of motivation in the field of language learning. According to Norton, investment as a new concept, on the one hand, stands for and signals the socially and historically constructed relationship between learners and the target language. On the other hand, and linking it to the motivation concept, Norton argued that it reflected learners' ambivalent desire to learn and practice the target language.

For a better understanding of investment and its contribution to the field of language learning motivation, Norton (2000) has made a reference to the economic metaphors that Bourdieu used in his work, in particular the notion of "cultural capital". Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) use the term *cultural capital* to reference the knowledge, credentials, and modes of thought that characterize different classes and groups in relation to specific sets of social forms. They argue that cultural capital is situated, in that it has differential exchange value in different social fields. Norton (2000) explained that learners' investment in learning a second language is

motivated by their understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital. It was a matter of learners' identity: as the value of their cultural capital increases, learners' sense of themselves and their desires for the future are reassessed. This notion of investment has been taken up by other scholars in the field, and is proving productive for understanding the complex conditions under which language learning takes place (McKay and Wong, 1996; Angelil-Carter, 1997; Skilton-Sylvester, 2002; Pittaway, 2004; Potowski, 2004).

Though Gardner's researches were mainly conducted in Canada within ESL environment, researchers around the world adopted Gardner's views, accepted his theory and method and conducted their research based on it, and interpreted the results as applying to their own contexts.

But it was within this misapplication that the shift in orientation was set, because it might not be appropriate to generalise Gardner's theory and transfer it to other contexts. In the foreign language learning classroom, where learners rarely have contact with members of the L2 group, attitudes toward the L2 community would not be the primary determiner of an individual's L2-related affectively oriented motivation (Dornyei, 1990. Nakata, 2006, p. 60)

#### **4.1.2. The Emergence of "Person in Context" Position**

Maehr et al. (1999, p. 17) stated that the latest shift in motivation research is from thinking about motivation as an internal disposition that differentiates individuals, towards a consideration of the construction of motivation in context. Weiner (1990) argued that school motivation cannot be divorced from the social fabric in which it is embedded (p.120).

The Person in Context Position is a new vision that highlights the mutual influence which exists between the individual and the learning contexts to which he/she belongs. The essence of this paradigm resides in emphasizing the role of the learner as an individual in directing, developing and manipulating the context within which learning takes place as well as he/she is being influenced by that context. According to Simone Volet (2001), situativity theory and socio-cultural perspectives have stressed the significance of socio-cultural influences in the development of cognition, motivation and learning and reciprocally how students' beliefs and behaviours affect the community of learning that they belong to. Many researchers seem to agree on the complementary rather than contradictory nature of the cognitive and situative approaches for understanding the learner in context. According to Billett (1996, p. 277), the two perspectives can enrich each other by providing a basis for understanding thinking and acting which they couldn't achieve on their own. For Anderson *et al.* (2000, p.12) in order to progress towards more useful design principles for resources and activities of productive learning, both are needed and both should be pursued vigorously.

Boekaerts' (1999, p. 43) theory of motivated learning, for example, has stressed how students and instructional contexts influence one another and more specifically how students motivational beliefs interact with the cues present in diverse social, physical and instructional contexts. In this sense, Op't Eynde, De Corte and Verschaffel (2000) claimed that emotions in the classroom are contextualized and unstable since they are based on student's unique continuous appraisals and interpretations of events as they unfold. They also recognize that event-specific appraisals are influenced by students' identity, prior experiences, belief systems and knowledge developed over participation in numerous other

practices – and which can reflect age, personal history and home culture variables. There is growing empirical evidence of cognitive, motivational, volitional and emotional sensitivity to tasks and activities in relation to relatively stable factors and macro-level contextual influences (Boekaerts, 1997; 1999; Turner et al., 1998; and Volet, 1997) and of knowledge structures activated in response to situational cues and circumstances (Boekaerts and Niemivirta, 2000; Pintrich, 2000).

What could worth analysis for this research is the effect of learners' subjective interpretations and appraisals of situations on directing the teaching/learning process i.e. the influence of learners' behaviour and reactions towards the learning contexts upon the learning community's goals and engagement in classroom activities.

## **4.2.Manipulating Motivation**

In order to limit the study to the scope of the present research, teachers' motivation will not be investigated in this chapter. Hence, we will take as granted that teachers are already motivated to teach and then analyse their role as motivators. Moreover, though a wide range of factors may be involved in manipulating language learners' motivation, this research is meant to stress two fundamental factors (the teacher and the context) that we assume are the most influential within the scenario-based context.

### **4.2.1. Motivating Teachers**

Language learners' motivation depends primarily on the kind of teachers they have. Since the teacher is the leader of the classroom, his/her behaviours and attitudes have a great influence on the overall learning environment. According to Newcombe (2007) the quality of teaching is of paramount importance, as a well-

prepared enthusiastic teacher is the key to fostering the feeling that a student is making progress in the language (p.107). Dornyei (2001a) stresses the importance of the teacher as a motivator, and identifies the teacher's enthusiasm and commitment as among the most important factors in learners' motivation to learn. Dornyei (2001b, p. 40-41) also emphasises the value of creating a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in class. He suggests a variety of strategies including the use of humour, encouragement of risk-taking, emphasising that mistakes are a natural part of learning, and stresses the importance of a good physical environment in class. (Newcombe, 2007, p.106). In the first published diary of a Welsh learner, Lewis (1999, p.115, 118-19) stressed the value of an encouraging tutor:

It seems to me that the teacher has quite a part to play in providing some motivation. Although the urge to learn must come from within, there is no doubt that being encouraged on one's progress is a great support. Learners don't often have the chance to choose their teachers, but if they do, they should look for one who is encouraging. (Lewis, 1999; Newcombe, 2007, p. 107)

There are many principles and techniques that may help a teacher to be a motivating, enthusiastic and an encouraging one, some of those are summarized below:

- Raise the praise, minimize the criticism.
- Building a shared vision (one for all and all for one).
- Getting everyone involved (participative management).
- Guiding goal setting for groups.
- Focusing on the future. (Whitaker, Whitaker, and Lumpa, 2008).

#### 4.2.2. Creating a Motivating Context

Whereas motivation has traditionally been regarded as something that teachers “do” or “give” to learners through a variety of motivational tricks and strategies, Ushioda (1996) noted that current insights emphasize the importance of fostering learner’s own motivation and sense of self-determination (for instance, Dickinson, 1995; Noels, 2001; Lamb, 2004). Beyond the quality of the teacher and what might be his/her role in motivating learners and directing the learning process, the learning context constitutes a key element of language learning within which other factors than the teacher may intervene. Among the most influential factors involved in affecting the learning context are the learners themselves. When we turn our attention to what teachers and learners might do to achieve and maintain motivation, Ushioda (1996) argues that it becomes impossible to consider pedagogical approaches to fostering motivation from within without considering approaches to fostering learners’ self-determination. Moreover, as Dam’s (1995) full account of her classroom practice makes obvious, the healthy growth of individual motivation depends very much on the quality and level of interpersonal support provided in the social learning environment. That interpersonal support is provided not only by the teacher but by the entire surrounding context including the learners.

Though learners come to language classes with different needs and goals in mind, it is highly essential to take their own needs in consideration in order to be able to direct the context or to be able to create one that fits the learners’ expectations. According to Ushioda (1996), a fundamental pedagogical principle in promoting learner-regulated motivation rather than teacher-regulated motivation is that learning needs are to be driven by learners’ own personal needs, goals, and

interests. This entails involving learners in making informed choices and decisions about their learning and in setting their own goals and learning targets and thus fostering feelings of personal responsibility (Ushioda, 1996). It is this responsibility that makes learners feel free to contribute in, and even more plan to change the learning process' direction, within a scenario-based context, according to their expectancy. The fact of being determined to intervene in making decisions and designing their own learning situations will enhance learners' achievement and performance. The strong connection between self-determination and motivation was vividly captured in Dam's (1995) account of her original reasons for giving her reluctant language learners more autonomy in the classroom.

In order to promote healthy interaction between social and individual processes of motivation, it seems clear that there must be close alignment between pedagogical goals and values, individual needs and interests, and peer-related interpersonal goals (Ushioda, 2003). This latter component is the most crucial in determining high-related learning goals and ones that the reaching for would be reflected in a healthy context which allows learners to experience sharing decisions about their own learning environment in an autonomous way. According to Griffiths (2008) incorporating classroom activities where learners work together in pairs or small groups to achieve common goals can help to foster cognitive and motivational interdependence among learners and a sense of shared responsibility. Regarding the scenario-based contexts, this kind of collaborative learning is widely featured in the opportunities given to learners to create, design and direct their own scenarios. Griffiths (2008) argues that the powerful role of collaborative learning in mediating the growth of individual motivation is widely recognized in studies of child development (for instance, Bronson, 2002), theories of intrinsic motivation

(Deci and Flaste, 1996; Ushioda, 1996), classroom studies (for instance, Good and Brophy, 1987), and research on peer tutoring in high education (for instance, Falchikov, 2001).

## **Conclusion**

Getting learners involved and motivated in learning is essential. For teachers and learners, however, the real challenge lies in finding ways of sustaining that motivation through the long and often arduous process of learning a language. This entails developing skills and strategies for regulating motivation (Griffiths, 2008). What cannot be motivated for our students; that is something they must find for themselves. What we can do is directly to teach them skills that will help them to begin a task with energy and to complete it even when it becomes difficult. (Tileston, p2). The question that every teacher should ask is how can learners be brought to see themselves as agents of their own learning and thus feel able to redirect their own thoughts, behaviours and feedback in a healthier positive way? McCombs (1994) argues that by providing positive interpersonal support and appropriately structured feedback, teachers can prompt and scaffold learners' attempts to reflect constructively on their learning experience and to direct their thinking in more positive ways. As far as the scenario-based methodology is concerned, the role of the teacher is to lead learners in reflecting on, evaluating and directing their own learning experience and performances in a constructive way.

## **CHAPTER THREE: ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES AND BUSINESS ENGLISH**

### **Introduction**

What we intend to do within the scope of this dissertation is to find out how the use of scenario-based courses would influence the motivation of business English learners. This involves dealing with learners who have specific needs related to their field of study; in our case commerce. These needs represent the basic foundation of the courses' development in a way that fits those learners' needs. Moreover, they are the starting point from which every scenario should begin and the framework within which every created context should fit. In this respect, we devote the present chapter to the investigation of the literature related to the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and more specifically to Business English. Henceforth, the chapter will review some definitions and approaches, proposed by the most distinguished scholars in the field, to the different concepts and constructs which have been in the core of the subject such as needs analysis, discourse analysis, register and genre analysis. However, as it is the most striking feature for the scope of our research, more attention has been given to needs analysis as to make the chapter more consistent with the whole dissertation.

### **1. Definition of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)**

The starting point of ESP was the simple question: 'why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?' as the foundation of ESP, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggested that ESP is rather a product of language than an approach to it. This vision argued that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. Yet, it considers the learners, the language required and

the learning context as the basic considerations to ESP classes and thus establishes the primacy of need in ESP (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

Another approach to ESP is that of Stevns (1988). He argued that ESP definition consists of two kinds of characteristics: absolute characteristics and variable characteristics. The absolute characteristics, on the one hand, are that ESP consists of English Language Teaching which is:

- Designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
- Related in content (that is in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities.
- Centred on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics and so on, and analysis of the discourse;
- In contrast with 'General English'.

On the other hand, the variable characteristics are that ESP:

- May be restricted as to the learning skills to be learned (for example reading only);
- May not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Advocating the primacy of needs analysis, Robinson (1991) based her definition of ESP on two key criteria. These criteria are that ESP is 'normally goal-directed', and that ESP courses develop from a needs analysis, which 'aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English' (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Robinson, 1991, p. 3).

Robinson (1991) supported her two basic criteria by other characteristics which were:

- ESP courses are generally constrained by a limited time period;
- The courses' objectives have to be achieved;

- They are taught to adults in homogeneous classes in terms of work or specialist studies that the students are involved in.

According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), the above mentioned definitions have both validity and weaknesses. Though Strevens' definition is the most comprehensive one, Dudley-Evans and St. John argued that 'referring to content in the second absolute characteristic may confirm the false impression held by many teachers that ESP is always and necessarily related directly to subject content'. Robinson's mention of homogeneous classes as a characteristic of ESP may lead to the same conclusion (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) argued that 'much ESP work is based on the notion of a 'common-core' of language and skills that belong to all academic disciplines or cut across the whole activity of business.' ESP teaching should necessarily reflect the underlying concepts and activities of the broad discipline. Similarly, Business English teaching should reflect the business context in which business meetings or negotiations takes place (Charles, 1994; Charles, 1996).

From the above mentioned definitions, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) came up with a definition of ESP based on nature of interaction between the ESP teacher and the learners which they named 'methodology'. They argued that ESP teaching makes use of a methodology that differs from that used in General English teaching. In some cases, the teacher becomes more like a language consultant, enjoying equal status with the learners who have their own expertise in the subject matter. They stressed two aspects of ESP methodology:

- All ESP teaching should reflect the methodology of the disciplines and professions it serves;

- In more specific ESP teaching the nature of the interaction between the teacher and learner may be very different from that in general English class.

Though Dudley-Evans and St. John's definition was based on the nature of interaction between the teacher and the learners, they also believe that language is a key feature of ESP. The target activities generated from needs analysis 'generate and depend on registers, genres and associated language that students needs to be able to manipulate in order to carry out the activity.' (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998)

### **1.1.English for Academic Purposes (EAP)**

EAP appeared as a subdivision of ESP. Hinkel (2005) argued that English for academic purposes (EAP) is a subdomain of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). He reported that EAP is generally housed in formal academic contexts. EAP shares subdomain status with English for occupational purposes (EOP). Blue (1988) articulated a further subdivision of EAP. He distinguished between English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) (Blue, 1988, cited in Dudley-Evans & St-John, 1998).

According to Hinkel (2005), the main difference between these two subdivisions of EAP lays in the scope. Within an EGAP class, the emphasis is mostly on common core skills and activities where English is taught for general academic purposes, across multiple disciplines, and includes learning and study skills components of broadly relevant academic skills.

In contrast, ESAP emphasizes higher order skills, student development, and authentic texts and features while working within specific epistemological traditions associated with different disciplines (Hinkel, 2005).

This focus on learning academic language through academic tasks, texts, and content is the basis for claims that EAP instruction represents a highly pragmatic approach to learning, encompassing needs analyses, evaluation, academic skills, disciplinary content, and tasks in support of student learning tertiary educational contexts.

### **1.2.English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)**

Hutchinson & Waters (1987) demonstrated that ESP is broken down into three branches: English for Science and Technology (EST); English for Business and Economics (EBE); and English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). They noted that no clear-cut is set between EAP and EOP: 'people can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job' (p. 16). An example of EOP for the EST branch is 'English for Technicians' whereas an example of EAP for the EST branch is 'English for Medical Studies' (Gatehouse, 2001).

Carter (1983) too categorized EAP and EOP under the same type of ESP. He implied that the end purpose of both EAP and EOP are one in the same: employment. However, according to Gatehouse (2001) despite the end purpose being identical, the means taken to achieve the end is very different indeed. Gatehouse argued that EAP and EOP are different in terms of focus on Cummins' (1979) notions of cognitive academic proficiency versus basic interpersonal skills.

Cummins' (1979) Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) dichotomy refers to the language skills used in the everyday informal language used with friends, family and co-workers and to the language proficiency required to make sense of and use academic language (Gatehouse, 2001).

Hinkel (2005) stated that English for occupational purposes (EOP) includes English language use by both professionals (e.g., in medicine, business, law) and by non professional workers (in vocational contexts).

## **2. Business English**

According to Ellis and Johnson (1994), Business English is defined within the scope of the overall context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Moreover, it uses the key features of needs analysis, syllabus design, course design, and material selection and development which are common to all fields of work in ESP. However, what makes Business English special resides in the fact that it concerns the fulfilment of learners' immediate needs to English in contrast with General English learners' needs which are rarely urgent.

Sylvie (2000) argued that despite the fact that Business English has much in common with General EFL, they differ in that Business English course's aims strongly relate to the learners' work which makes them quite radically different from those of a General English course.

Furthermore, 'Business English differs from other varieties of ESP in that it is often a mix of specific content - relating to a particular job area or industry - and general content - relating to general ability to communicate more effectively, albeit in business situations - (Ellis and Johnson, 1994).

As far as Business English learners are concerned, Sylvie (2000) argued that teaching Business English involves teaching English to adults working in businesses of one kind or another, or preparing to work in the field of business. What is important, according to Sylvie, is to consider both learners and sponsors' expectations, when designing a Business English course. Since the aim behind organizing such a course is to have a course related to occupational and professional language needs. Hence, investigating, analysing and fulfilling Business English students' needs are highly important for the success of any Business English course.

However, if we consider the settings of the present research, we may argue that though teaching Business English indeed uses the key features of needs analysis, syllabus design, course design, and material selection and development, it remains far from fulfilling the learners' immediate needs. Especially those related to the business skills since the learners themselves are not fully aware of those needs. Business English learners in the context of the research work in hand are university students which are not necessarily aware of the use of English in the professional context. Moreover, comparing to other Non-English speaking countries, English cannot be said to be wide spread within the Algerian labour market, since apart from foreign companies, French remains the most used language within the professional settings. Hence, investigating learners' needs would not reveal purely professional language needs but rather communicative needs which learners expect their fulfilment would allow them to get better jobs.

### 3. The Purpose of a Business English Course

According to Sylvie (2000) the purpose of a Business English course is to fulfil students' work-related needs. These are usually very specific and cover a wide range of language. Indeed this purpose is the basis of any Business English course, yet it should be set as the prime long-term objective of the course in case the learners do not fit the minimum requirements of a Business English class. Further subcategorised purposes should be set to pave the way towards the fulfilment of that prime one. In that, and since such a prime objective is not quite ready to be fulfilled within the context of the present work, we sought to set some short-term objectives as to fit the learners 'subordinate' needs towards the fulfilment of the prime one. These objectives are:

- To increase learners' awareness about the use of English in the professional context.
- To increase learners' motivation to learn General English then Business English.
- To introduce and make learners aware of the business skills they will be required to use in the professional context.

As related to this last point, Sylvie (2000) provided illustrations of different business skills learners may be required to master as related to some job categories. She reported that students, who are employed by a multinational corporation need to be able to use the phone, report to foreign managers, reply to or write faxes and e-mail messages, read periodicals on their subject area and perform other tasks typically associated with the workplace. Students who are doing business with companies abroad need to survive on business trips, communicate on the phone and by fax, and negotiate contracts. Students who work in an industry whose language

is English (e.g. telecommunications or computing) need to be able to digest large quantities of reading matter in English, they may also need to be able to give presentations or discuss their work in English.

### **3.1. Teaching Objectives**

Sylvie (2000) stated that objectives for lessons and stages of lessons need to be made very clear to students on a day-to-day basis. In fact students' awareness about the lessons' objectives will push them to work with enthusiasm and intelligence to reach these objectives. Sylvie noted that decision-making and objective-setting can frequently be passed on to students, since they are often used to making decisions, setting objectives and respecting deadlines in their day-to-day work. As related to the scenario-based methodology, the most prominent feature is, indeed, learners' decision-making, however, this feature does not develop from the learners' ability and acquaintance with decision-making but rather works as a learners' involving factor which would help them direct the classroom interaction in a way that is likely to help them manipulate the language.

### **3.2. Student-Teacher Relationship**

Referring to the kind of business relating them to each other, Sylvie (2000) described the learner – teacher relationship as being a client – agent providing a service relation. Since Business English teachers are hired by companies, sponsors or educational institutions to provide Business English lessons. She argued that 'students and teachers work in partnership to build a constructive learning environment which is appropriate to individual students' professional and personal situations. As well as being a learner, the student is also a provider of information and material, if not also expertise.' However, in case learners receive Business

English lessons as part of their tertiary education, the kind of learner – teacher relationship is quite different. Since the learners have never experienced those professional needs that would give them the status of partners in the classroom they need more from the teacher's part than playing the role of language consultant.

### **3.3.Business Skills**

As any English course a Business English course includes all the language skills and elements such as listening, speaking, and grammar, together with various business skills. Osborne (2005) stated that these skills refer to what students actually do in their work and include:

- Presentations
- Telephoning
- Meetings and discussions
- Negotiations
- Socialising
- Writing (e.g. emails; letters; reports; contracts; manuals)
- Reading (e.g. business pages of newspapers; reports; manuals; contracts)
- Interviews (e.g. job/ appraisal/ grievance)
- Other (depending on the student's job)

University students with no professional experience are unlikely to be familiar with these skills even in their own language. The role of the teacher is then to make them aware and to expose them to those skills. Osborne (2005) argued that although Students in jobs are normally experienced in various business skills, teachers should not assume that they are necessarily good at them in their own language. Osborne stated that teachers too need to make sure they have a good basic

understanding of the business skills; otherwise it will be difficult to teach with confidence.

#### 4. Needs Analysis

Richterich (1983, p.2) noted that 'the very concept of language needs has been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous'. The origins of Needs Analysis goes back to the 1920's, in India, when Michael West was trying to establish *why* learners should learn English. West was dealing with students of General English in what Abbott (1981, p.12) calls a TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason) situation and it was perhaps for this reason that the term then disappeared until around 1970. (West, 1997, p. 68). Abbott (1981) explained this acronym as referring to the case of the most of the world's learners of English: children who are too young or too distant from any real communication in English to have any identifiable needs.

Within ESP the definitions of needs and needs analysis have broadened with experience and research, for instance, in the 1960s and early 1970s, literature and language trained English teachers, faced with teaching science students English for their subject studies, knew very little of the 'what' or 'how' of those studies and concomitantly little about the language of science and technology (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998)

A needs distinction was made by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.53-63) between target needs and learning needs. According to Hall and Hewings (2001) learning needs can be seen as instructional logistics needs since they 'relate to questions of the purpose of the course, background of the learners, types of instructional resources, and location and time of the course'. However, target needs

can be seen as institutional or academic needs related to the overall objectives of administering the course. Hall and Hewings (2001) argued that when Hutchinson and Waters (1987) focus on target needs, they view learners as being short of the mark, or lacking, rather than as people who bring their own experience and expectations to language program.

In fact, both target needs and learning needs are in the core of our research. Since, on the one hand, learners are not yet able to bring their experiences and expectations to the program which means that target needs should be set beforehand. On the other hand, the course should fit those learners' needs, interests, and learning strategies which have to be analysed on the basis of the learners themselves.

#### **4.1.Evolution of Needs Analysis**

West (1997, p.70-71) noted that the difficulty of definition arises from the ways in which the concept and focus of needs analysis have evolved since the early 1970s. He distinguished between three (possibly four) stages through which needs analysis developed (see table 4)

Table 4: *Evolution of Needs Analysis* (Michael West, 1997, p.70)

Stage	Period	Focus	Scope of analysis	Examples
1	Early 1970s	EOP ESP	Target situation analysis	Richterich, 1971, 1975/1980 ELTDU, 1970 Stuart & Lee, 1972/1985
2	Later 1970s	EAP	Target situation analysis	Jordan & Mackay, 1973 Mackay, 1978
3	1980s	ESP and general language teaching	Target situation analysis Deficiency analysis Strategy analysis Means analysis Language audits	Tarone & Yule, 1989 Allright & Allright, 1977 Allright, 1982 Holliday & Cooke, 1982 Pilbeam, 1979
4	Early 1990s	ESP	Integrated/ computer-based analyses	Jones, 1991 Nelson, 1994

From this table, five different concepts of needs analysis emerge:

Target situation analysis: in this earlier form of needs analysis the language requirements of the target situation were identified by contemplating, questioning or observing those already in that situation. Such needs have also been called necessities or objective needs, and they represent the destination of the LSP learner’s language-learning journey. Target-situation analysis may operate at various levels of detail:

- (a) Establishing priorities in terms of various languages – English, German, etc.
- (b) Establishing priorities in terms of skills in one language – speaking, reading, etc.
- (c) Establishing priorities in terms of LSP situations, functions or tasks – speaking on the telephone, listening to lectures, etc.

Deficiency analysis: One of the limitations of target-situation analysis is that it takes little account of the present state of the learner's present language proficiency, and so some method is needed to assess the starting point of LSP journey. Such needs have been termed lacks, deficiencies or subjective needs as they estimate the 'learning gap' between present needs and target needs.

Strategy analysis: Having established the starting point and the destination, we need information about the preferred means of travel – the approaches to learning or teaching. Strategy analysis, therefore, sets out to establish the learners' preferences in terms of learning styles and strategies, or teaching methods.

Means analysis: This examines the teaching environment in which the language course is to take place and establishes the constraints and opportunities of the ESP journey and encompasses four main areas:

- (a) Classroom culture/learner factors – what is or is not possible within a particular educational culture or tradition.
- (b) Staff profiles/teacher profiles – what is or is not possible with the staff available, considering numbers, language level, LSP background, training, etc.
- (c) Status of language teaching/institutional profiles – what is or is not possible given the status of LSP within the organisation or institution, considering timetable and resource allocations, etc.
- (d) Change agents/change management – an assessment of what innovations are necessary or possible in order to establish an effective LSP programme.

Language audits: The four concepts of needs analysis we have examined so far may be seen as complementary to each other and all operate at the level of the organisation or institution. Language audits, on the other hand, are much larger

scale operations establishing the LSP practice of, say, a company or the policy of ministry. An example would be the recent audit carried out for Hungary (Teemant, Varga & Heltai, 1993). A language audit could and should embrace all the levels of needs analysis that we have identified.

#### **4.2. Needs Analysis Basic Principles**

As the field of Needs Analysis have been widely investigated along the years, teachers or trainers setting out nowadays to determine learners' needs begin from a different and broader base (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). A way to cut on time and efforts within a needs analysis process is to use those previous investigations as a starting point. That would help, to a great extent, researchers in targeting the appropriate population and to look for the most essential data. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) stated that trawling the literature for previous needs analyses, available materials and research findings is a highly essential if not an obligatory step before teachers or trainers can approach clients and students. They need to be as knowledgeable as possible so that they would

- Know what they did not know – that is, they would know what to ask;
- Not waste their clients' or students' time;
- Appear much more professional;
- Know how they should analyse the data.

Another basic principle stressed by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) is to know beforehand what will happen to the collected raw data and to the information derived from it. They argued that much time and effort can be wasted in gathering responses that cannot be interpreted or lead to more questions rather than answers.

As ESP practitioners we need to know exactly what we are trying to find out and what we will do with the answers before we start (Berwick, 1989, p.62)

## 5. Register Analysis

Register analysis is adopted by linguists wishing to account for the influence of the immediate situation upon the shape of a stretch of language (Corbett, 2003) According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), register analysis refers to the study of how frequently grammatical structures are used in texts. Basturkmen (2006) argued that register Analysis concerns the study, identification and teaching of the most important grammatical structures and vocabulary items within a scientific or a technical writing. As an early approach to ESP, Register Analysis was premised on the idea that although similar grammatical structures are used in both General English and ESP, particular grammatical structures and vocabulary items are used more frequently in scientific and technical writings. Barber's (1962/1985) analyses of scientific and technical texts showed a more frequent use of the passive tense and identified a set of sub-technical vocabulary items that were more likely to occur (Basturkmen, 2006)

Corbett (2003) defined three main situational variables as basic considerations of Register Analysis: the field, referring to the topic of the discourse; the tenor, referring to the relationship between participants in the discourse; and the mode, referring to the channel or type discourse, for example, whether it is a written editorial or a spoken conversation. Corbett argued that the consideration of field, tenor and mode together constitute register analysis, which was developed from the 1960s through the 1990s (Ghadessy, 1988, 1993; Halliday et al., 1964; Halliday & Hasan, 1989)

Register Analysis had a great impact on language teaching in general and more specifically on language teaching materials produced during the 60's and 70's. Corbett (2003) argued that Register Analysis had allowed material designers to abstract the language of science and business from the inchoate mass of General English.

However, the impact of register analysis and the rise of ESP courses and materials gave credence to the idea that language could be described and taught without reference to a wider culture (Corbett, 2003). Corbett further argued that this idea had strengthened the instrumental approach to language teaching, since the vocabulary and grammar of the typical scientific report could be described and taught separately from culture. It is genre analysis that holds more promise for an intercultural approach.

The impact of Register Analysis was further seen in the design of ESP materials. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), most materials produced under the banner of Register analysis followed a similar pattern, beginning each chapter with a long specialist reading passage. Units usually begin with a reading passage related to specific discipline.

## **6. Business Discourse Analysis**

### **6.1. Definition of Discourse**

Jorgensen and Phillips (2002) proposed a preliminary definition of discourse as being a particular way of talking about and understanding the world (or an aspect of the world). They refer to the definition provided by Foucault (1972, p.117) as:

We shall call discourse a group of statements in so far as they belong to the same discursive formation [...] Discourse is made up of a limited number of statements for which a group of conditions of existence can be defined. Discourse in this sense is not an ideal, timeless form [...] it is, from beginning to end, historical – a fragment of history [...] posing its own limits, its divisions, its transformations, the specific modes of its temporality.

According to Jorgensen and Phillips (2002) ‘discourse’ has been widely used and considered in vogue during the 1990’s. However, its use remains confusing to a certain extent: since in scientific texts and debates, the term discourse has often been used without being defined, in a typically indiscriminate way. ‘The concept has become vague, either meaning almost nothing, or being used with more precise, but rather different, meanings in different contexts’. But, generally speaking, the word ‘discourse’ relates to the typical change in the language structure that occurs respectively with the change in the patterns that people’s utterances follow when they take part in different domains of social life, familiar examples being ‘medical discourse’ and ‘political discourse’. ‘Discourse analysis’ is the analysis of these patterns (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002).

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) stated that discourse analysis refers to the study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger units at a level above the sentence, for example in paragraphs, whole conversations or written texts.

Olshtain and Celce-Murcia (2001) argued that discourse analysis is the source of reference for decision-making in language teaching and learning. Therefore, it would be ill-advised to teach language via the communicative approach without relying heavily on discourse analysis. For Olshtain and Celce-Murcia, what is really important for language acquisition and development within a

communicative perspective is to create suitable contexts for interaction, to illustrate speaker/hearer and reader/writer exchanges, and to provide learners with opportunities where they can process the language within a variety of situations.

## **6.2. Rhetorical and Discourse Analysis**

The pioneering work in this area was done by Lackstrom, Selinker and Trimble (1973) whose approach is perhaps best summarised by Trimble's later book *English for Science and Technology: A Discourse Approach* (1985) (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). Trimble provided a definition of rhetoric as being 'the process a writer uses to produce a desired piece of text' (p.10) and a definition of an EST text as being 'concerned only with the presentation of facts, hypotheses and similar types of information'. Further, Trimble distinguished four rhetorical levels at which a text should be organized:

- Level A – the objectives of the total discourse;
- Level B – the general rhetorical functions that develop the level A objectives;
- Level C – the specific rhetorical functions that develop the general ones;
- Level D – the rhetorical techniques that provide relationships between the level C functions.

It was the idea of relating language form to language use, emerging from Trimble's work, which gave great importance to language use in the selection of ESP teaching materials. The proliferation of ESP at the beginning of the 1970's was accompanied by Widdowson and Allen's early writings which made the rhetoric approach a major movement in ESP. In his terminology, Widdowson used the term 'usage' instead of 'use'. His arguments for the primacy of language use

over form and for an approach based on the communicative aspect of the language were extremely influential (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

## 7. Genre Analysis

Swales (1990) has elaborated his earlier working definition of genre (Swales, 1981) to the following:

‘A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale of the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constraints choice of content and style...’

Dudley-Evans (1987) provided a clear introduction to genre analysis:

‘It has characteristic features of style and form that are recognised, either overtly or covertly, by those who use the genre. Thus, for example, the research article has a known public purpose, and has conventions about layout, form and style that are to a large degree standardised.’

Dudley-Evans also related genre analysis to register analysis and discourse analysis. According to him, the essential difference between discourse and genre analysis is that discourse analysis seeks to describe relations that are in all texts. It is concerned with the similarities between texts. Genre analysis, however, claims only to be able to say something about individual texts or, perhaps, types of text.

Swales (1990) proposed three key concepts in genre analysis: discourse community, genre and language-learning task. Discourse community is central to an explanation of genre. Swales further distinguished six defining criteria for discourse community:

- Common goals;
- Participatory mechanisms;
- Information exchange;
- Community specific genres;
- A highly specialized terminology;
- A high general level of expertise.

He later added that genres are neither simply texts, nor discourse communities, but simply groups of individuals who share attitudes, beliefs and expectations. The implication here is that a study of institutional culture is involved (Jordan, 1997).

The extensive work done in the ESP field on genre analysis (for example, Swales 1990; Bhatia 1993) seeks to identify the particular conventions for language use in certain domains of professional and occupational activity. It is a development from, and an improvement on, register analysis because it deals with discourse and not just text: that is to say, it seeks not simply to reveal what linguistic forms are manifested but how they realize, make real the conceptual and the rhetorical structures, modes of thought and action, which are established as conventional for certain discourse communities. Genre analysis is, therefore, not principally about the English of engineering, of medicine, of business, or banking, but about the conventions of thought and communication which define these areas of professional activity, and how, incidentally, these are given expression, or textualized, in English.

## **Conclusion**

The teaching of Business English in the concerned departments of the Algerian universities in general, and in the department of Commerce in Mentouri University in Constantine more specifically is influenced by factors and directed by objectives which are completely different from those discussed previously in this chapter. The degree of interest of learners is highly affected by a lack of awareness which makes the task of the teacher and the material designer more difficult. The stake is not a one of meeting the learners' needs but rather of introducing them to those needs as a way to attract their attention and enhance their interest in Business English.

## CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

### Introduction

As the investigation of the scenario-based instruction's effect sprung from the problematic situation we observed in the concerned department, we dedicate this chapter to the investigation of that situation's settings. We tried to cover different aspects of the teaching/learning situation of English in the department of Commerce at Mentouri University in Constantine by collecting data about learners' opinions and attitudes using a questionnaire and video recorded interviews. The chapter starts with the description of the population and the sampling technique and then moves to the pilot questionnaire's results. It presents the main investigation including the design and implementation of both the main questionnaire and the video recorded interviews and their results. Finally, the chapter ends with a discussion of both tools' results in the light of the theoretical survey provided in the previous chapters.

### 1. Population of the Study

The whole population of the study consists of four (04) groups from two different grades and two different specialities from the LMD branch in the Department of Commerce at the new University Pole in Ali Mendjeli City in Constantine:

Group1: 3<sup>rd</sup> grade Marketing. (45 learners)

Group2: 3<sup>rd</sup> grade Accounting. (53 learners)

Group3: Master 1 Marketing. (42 learners)

Group4: Master 1 Accounting. (41 learners)

A total number of: one hundred eighty one (181) learners.

The four groups had followed two years of instruction in the general branch of Commerce (tronc-commun) in which they studied English – for one hour and a half per week – as one of the secondary educational unit's subjects during the 1<sup>st</sup> grade and French during the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade. Then, they have been directed either towards Marketing or Accounting as the two specialities of the branch. During the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade, they have to study English for the two semesters. However, for the Master studies, English is administered only during the 1<sup>st</sup> semester (one hour and a half per week for both grades).

The selection of the population was mainly based on the fact that 3<sup>rd</sup> grade and Master learners are in the final graduation year, either for the “Licence” degree or the “Master” degree. For those who will not go further with their studies, they will be looking for a job in the near future. Consequently, and though learners of other grades could have been concerned too, final grades' learners are more likely to be appropriate subjects to a Business English research work. However, other factors such as: the administrative constraints, the appropriateness of the groups' time tables to the researcher's one and the non existence of Master 2 groups had influenced the selection of the population to a considerable extent.

Following the steps of development of the research work in hand, the population of the study was distributed on the three tools that were used to investigate the hypothesis. That distribution will be explained in details along the present chapter through the pilot study of the questionnaire, the main questionnaire, the pre- and post- interviews and the classroom observation.

## **2. The Pilot Study of the Questionnaire**

### **2.1.Design and Implementation**

The pilot questionnaire was divided into three main sections. The first one, intended to introduce the questionnaire and to facilitate further classification and analysis, consists of three requested information about the learners' age, field of study and grade. The second section, intended to collect data about the way English is being taught in the concerned department and the learners' opinions about the English classes, consists of five questions about the emphasised skills, the used materials, the degree of participation and the learner attitudes and opinion about the current class's atmosphere. The third section, intended to collect data about the learners' attitudes and opinions about the English language beyond the classroom educational settings, consists of ten questions about the learners' perception, expectations and learning preferences about English as a language and the language skills. (see appendix 1)

To avoid making the participants feel bored with answering the questionnaire's questions, the answers were, mostly, organized into tables, with the request to tick the most appropriate answer which represents, more likely, what the participants think is true form them – and not what should be or what the others think it should be. The participants had to answer questions either by choosing the right frequency, order, degree of agreement, difficulty, importance, or by choosing among some proposed answers and provide more specifications in case the answer doesn't figure on the paper.

The pilot questionnaire was administered by the researcher, who is the teacher at the same time, to seventeen (17) learners from the Master1 Accounting class. The choice of the sample was not based on specific reasons, since those

learners were the first to attend the class in the right beginning of the academic year. After explaining the scope and the aim of the study to the participants and assuring the anonymity and confidentiality, they accepted to take part in the answering the questionnaire. The researcher's role was to explain and to answer any further questions asked by the participants.

## **2.2.Results of the Pilot Study**

Because of the small number of the participants in the pilot study, and since the participants were later included in the main study, the results of the pilot questionnaire are not taken into consideration in this step of the research. However, the pilot questionnaire allowed us to notice some deficiencies such as:

- The use of English creates a kind of uncertainty about the answers if not a complete misunderstanding or a non-understanding of the questions.
- Some tables proved to be very long for the participants and include a lot of information, which makes the participants complain about and comment that they will answer for the sake of answering, no more.

Those deficiencies were remedied in the main questionnaire by introducing the Arabic language and reshaping the tables.

## **3. The Main Investigation**

The present research attempts, as it has been settled in the aim of the study, to investigate the effect of the scenario-based instruction on Business English learners' motivation. For this aim, we opted for three research tools to collect as much possible data from the participants. Moreover, we believe that it would provide a kind of checking to each tool's data.

### **3.1.The Questionnaire's Design and Implementation**

In order to remedy to the pilot questionnaire's drawbacks, we administered a final questionnaire presented with both Arabic statements on the right side and English ones on the left side (see appendix 2). One of the pilot questionnaire's tables was divided into three tables based on language skills categorization. And the age information was removed from the first part of the questionnaire, since the overwhelming population belongs to the same age category (from 19 to 26 years old) and the age factor will not be taken into account in the analysis and the discussion of this research.

Hence, apart from the above mentioned amendments, the final questionnaire consists of the same three categories of the pilot questionnaire with the same questions and the same answering styles.

The implementation of the questionnaire took place during the English classes of each group. It was supervised by the teacher (researcher) who explained the aim of the study, how to proceed with the questions, and asked the students if they would willingly take part in the research by answering the questionnaire.

After participants have expressed their agreement, fourteen (14) third grade Marketing learners; twenty nine (29) third grade accounting; forty-two (42) master 1 Accounting and only nine (09) master 1 Marketing learners participated in answering the questionnaire. This sample makes a total number of ninety four (94) participants out of one hundred eighty one (181) i.e. fifty one point ninety three percent (51.93%) of the whole population; the sample represents more than half of the whole population.

### **3.1.1. Data Coding and Preparation**

The questionnaire's data have been coded as follow:

'M' represents the Marketing participants. 'A' represents the Accounting participants. Hence, '1M', '3M', '1A', '3A' will, respectively, represent participants from master 1 marketing, 3<sup>rd</sup> grade marketing, master 1 accounting and 3<sup>rd</sup> grade accounting.

Concerning the level of agreement, we allocated 0 point for 'Neutral'; (-1) and (-2) for 'Disagree' and 'Strongly Disagree'; (+1) and (+2) for 'Agree' and 'Strongly Agree'. Moreover, we represented statement in each questions with capital letters of the alphabet starting from 'A' with the negative sign (-) for negatively oriented statements and the positive sign (+) for the positively oriented statements. Consequently, statement '5G+', for example, will represent the statement 'the teachers/students relationship is very good' on the 3<sup>rd</sup> page of the questionnaire (see appendix 2).

The remaining data, such as frequency adverbs for the degree of importance, were not coded.

### **3.1.2. Results of the Main Questionnaire**

#### **3.1.2.1. Results in the Current Status of English in the Department of Commerce**

This category is intended to investigate the current status of English within the department of commerce and the environment in which it is being taught. It will display the results from questions and statements pertaining to the respondents' opinions and attitudes towards English as they experienced learning English in the department of Commerce.

### 3.1.2.1.1. Results in Language Skills and Language Elements

Language skills and language elements were investigated through question 1.

In their responses, 40 participants (42.55%) reported that their English classes had never focused on the listening skill. 15 participants (15.96%) reported that they rarely focused on it. However, 22 participants (23.40%) said that their English classes had often focused on the listening skill and only 17 participants (18.09%) reported that the listening skill was always focused on within their English classes.

Concerning the speaking skill, only 14 participants (14.89%) responded that it was never focused in their classes. 43 participants (45.74%), moreover, reported that speaking had rarely been stressed. However, 25 participants (26.60%) reported that speaking had often been focused on as a skill in their classes, and only 12 participants (12.77%) ticked the adverb ‘always’.

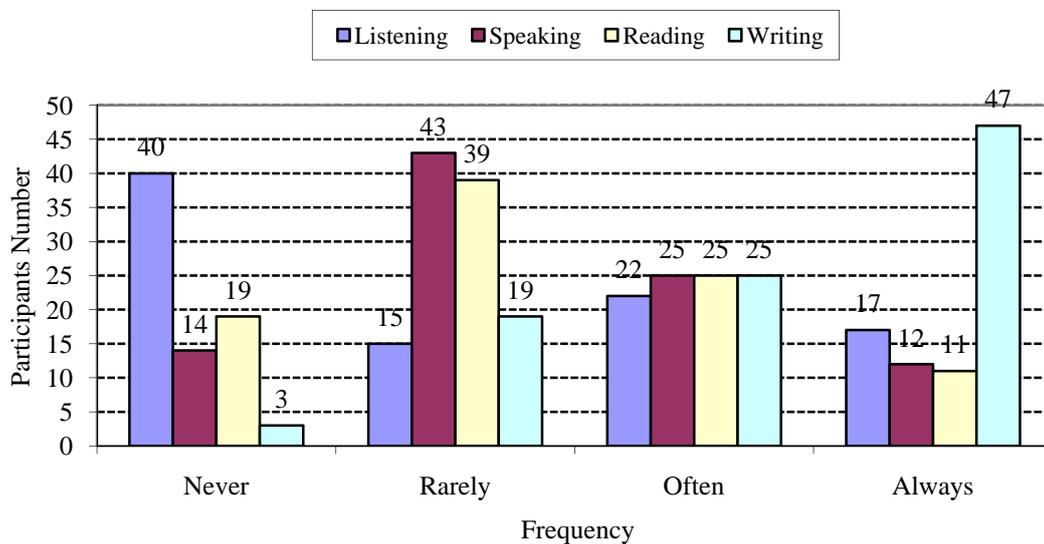


Figure 1. Basic skills studied in the department of Commerce

Likewise, the reading skill received a fairly close distribution of the frequency adverbs. 19 participants (20.21%) opted for ‘never’; 39 participants

(41.49%) opted for 'rarely'; 25 participants (26.60%) opted for 'often'; and only 11 participants (11.70%) reported that the reading skill had always been focused on within their classes.

Concerning the writing skill, 47 participants (50%) reported that their classes had always focused on writing, and 25 participants (26.60%) ticked the adverb 'often'. However, 19 participants (20.21%) responded that their English classes were rarely focused on writing, and only 3 participants (3.19%) reported that they had never done so. Figure 1 above displays graphically the results related to this point.

Accordingly, participants' responses allotted frequency adverbs to the proposed language functions. In that, 14 participants (14.89%) reported that grammar had never been focused on in their English classes, and 31 participants (32.98%) responded that it had rarely been so. Yet, 28 participants (29.79%) attributed the adverb 'often' to grammar, and only 21 participants (22.34%) attributed the adverb 'always'.

Concerning vocabulary, 24 participants (25.53%) responded that it had always been focused on, and 48 participants (51.06%) opted for the adverb 'often'. 22 participants (23.40%) reported that vocabulary was rarely stressed within their classes and no participant selected the adverb 'never'.

In contrast, phonetics received 32 'never' (34.04%); 35 'rarely' (37.23%); only 16 'often' (17.02%); and 11 'always' (11.70%). Figure 2 below displays the results related to the issue.

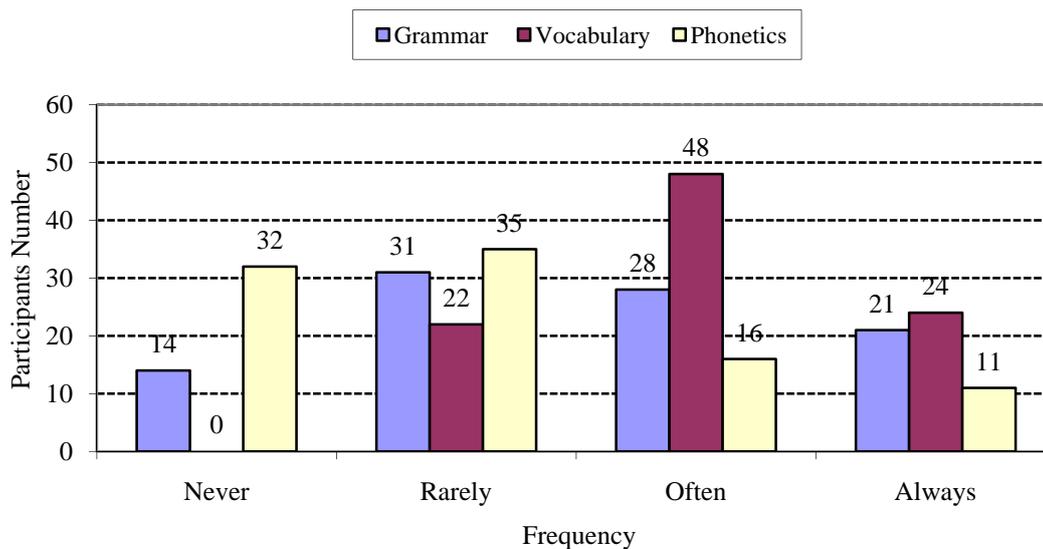


Figure2. Basic language elements studied in the department of Commerce

### 3.1.2.1.2. Results in Language Materials

The use of materials was investigated through question 2, to which participants’ answers have shown the results demonstrated in table 5 below:

Table 5: *The most used materials in teaching English in the department of Commerce*

<b>Materials</b>	<b>Participants’ responses</b>	<b>Percentage of use</b>
Handouts	84	65.12%
Textbooks	21	16.28%
Others: Board	17	13.18%
Others: Data show	3	2.32%
Audio tracks	3	2.32%
Pictures	1	0.77%
Videos	0	0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>100%</b>

As table 5 shows, the commonly used materials are limited to the handouts, textbooks and the board. Though necessary to the conduction of the lessons, these materials cannot be said to have a good effect on the learners’ motivation and

involvement, and should be used in combination with interactive materials. The latter are rarely, if not never, used in the department of Commerce.

### 3.1.2.1.3. Results in the Rate of Participation

Participation rate was investigated through question 3. The results show divergent and contrasting opinions as 35 participants (37.23%) reported that they were rarely allowed to participate in classroom discussions. However, 30 participants (31.91%) reported that they were always allowed to participate, and 21 participants (22.34%) said that they were often allowed to. Only 8 participants (8.51%) opted for the adverb ‘never’. The graphic representation is displayed in figure 3 below

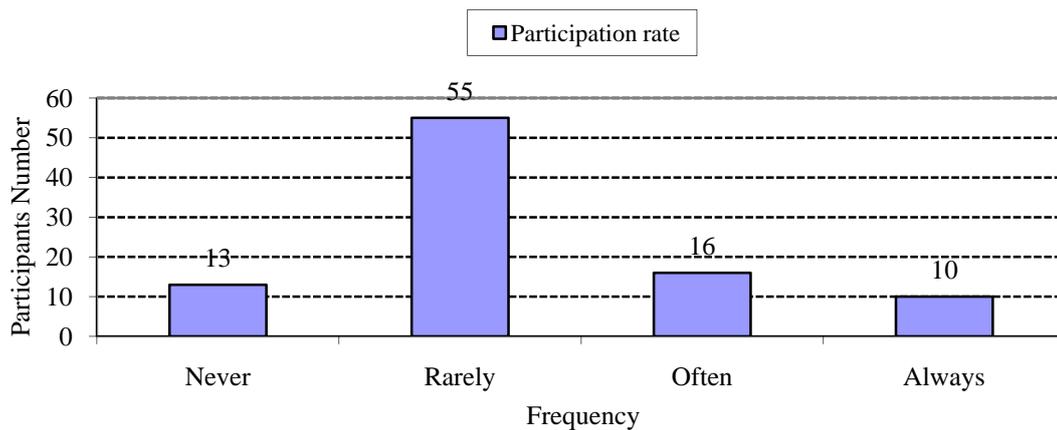


Figure 3. The participation rate in the department of Commerce

### 3.1.2.1.4. Results in Learners’ Reasons to Attend English Classes

The reasons behind which learners’ attended English classes were investigated through question 4. The provided statements – which represent the proposed reasons – are coded (4.A), (4.B), (4.C), (4.D) in the order presented on the questionnaire.

In their answers for statement (4.A), 72 participants (76.60%) reported that they had always attended by obligation. 16 participants (17.02%) opted for ‘often’ concerning obligation, and only 3 participants (3.19%) opted for both adverbs ‘rarely’ and ‘never’.

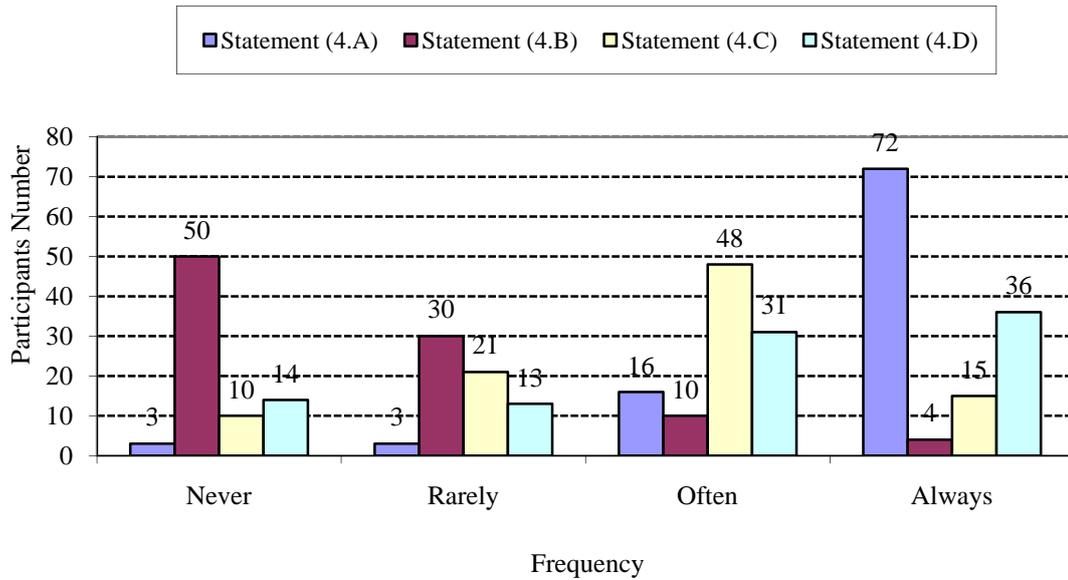


Figure 4. Respondents’ reasons of attending the English classes

As a kind of entertainment, statement (4.B) received 50 ‘never’ (53.19%); 30 ‘rarely’ (31.91%); 10 ‘often’ (10.64%); and only 4 ‘always’ (4.26%).

For statement (4.C), 15 participants (15.96%) responded that they always attended to learn business vocabulary, and 48 participants (51.06%) reported that they often did. However, 21 participants (22.34%) reported that learning business vocabulary was rarely a reason behind attending English classes, and only 10 participants (10.64%) opted for the adverb ‘never’.

Statement (4.D) collected 36 ‘always’ (38.30%); 31 ‘often’ (32.98%); 13 ‘rarely’ (13.83%); and only 14 ‘never’ (14.89%). The graphical representation of the results is shown in figure 4 above.

Though a significant number of the informants reported that learning business vocabulary and improving their English level are among the reasons behind attending the English classes, the majority of them reported that they always attend because they are obliged to. Hence, it becomes more apparent that there is a serious lack of motivation.

#### **3.1.2.1.5. Results in Learners' Opinions about the English Classes**

This category was investigated through question 5. However, a further categorisation was needed to feature 3 main areas of investigation.

##### **a. Results in learners' opinions about the classes**

Learners' opinions about English classes were investigated through statements (5.A+), (5.B-), (5.C-) and (5.D-). The level of agreement of the participants with those statements showed that the majority of them have a positive opinion about English classes since, on the one hand, 49 participants (52.13%) agree with the positively oriented statement (5.A+) among whom 20 participants (21.28%) strongly agree. However, 28 participants (29.79%) reported that they disagree, among them only 8 participants (8.51%) strongly disagree with the statement. 17 participants (18.09%), though, preferred to be neutral. On the other hand, the negatively oriented statements received a fairly negative opinion, since 34 participants (36.16%) reported their agreement with statement (5.B-). Conversely, 46 participants (48.93%) disagree with the statement and 14 participants (14.89%) were neutral. Statement (5.C-), too, received sharper negative opinions since only 22 participants (23.40%) expressed their agreement with the statement and 49 participants (52.13%) reported that they disagree with it. However, 23 participants (24.47%) opted for the neutrality. Likewise, statement (5.D-) collected 14

participants' disagreements (14.88%); 66 participants' disagreements (70.22%); and 14 neutral opinions (14.89%).

#### **b. Results in the teachers' methods**

The investigation of the existing relation between learners and teachers and how learners perceive their teachers' methods includes statements (5.E-), (5.F-), (5.G+) and (5.H+). Different from the previous category, the results of this category demonstrated a clear agreement with the negatively oriented statements and fairly distinguished disagreement with the positively oriented ones. On the one hand, 39 participants (41.49%) expressed their agreement with statement (5.E-) and 28 of them (29.79%) expressed their disagreement. Further, Statement (5.F-) collected 76 participants' agreements (80.85%) and only 5 participants' disagreements (5.31%). On the other hand, though, 35 participants (37.23%) reported that they agree with statement (5.G+) and 28 of them (29.79%) that they disagree, only 25 participants (26.60%) expressed their agreement with statement (5.H+) and 50 of them (53.19%) expressed their disagreement with the statement. However, for this category the rate of neutrality was fairly significant since 27 participants (28.72%), 13 participants (13.83%), 31 participants (32.98%) and 19 participants (20.21%) expressed their neutrality for statements (5.E-), (5.F-), (5.G+) and (5.H+) respectively.

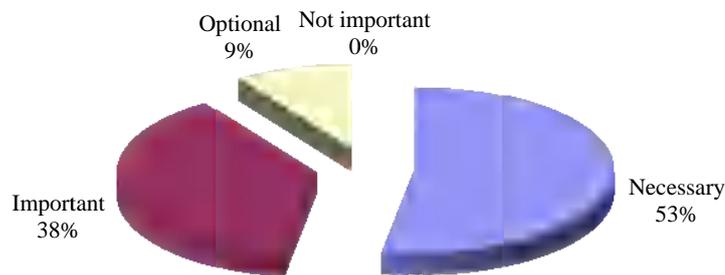
From the above mentioned results, it can be argued that the teachers' methods, which play an important role in motivating the learners and attracting their attention, are far from being satisfactory.

**c. Results in the position of English in the department**

The importance assigned to English within the department of Commerce is investigated through statement (5.I+). And despite the fact that the statement is positively oriented, 65 participants (69.15%) expressed their disagreement with the statement, among which 23 participants (24.47%) strongly disagree with the statement. Contrarily, only 03 participants (3.19%) reported that they strongly agree and 08 of them (8.51%) that they agree with the statement. However, 18 participants (19.15%) expressed their neutrality. Hence, the results have proved that English in the department of Commerce is not considered as an important subject.

**3.1.2.1.6. Results in the Degree of Importance of English**

The degree of importance of English for the student of Commerce is investigated through question 6. The participants demonstrated a clear awareness of the highly important status of English for them. Figure 5 bellow display the detailed results of question 6.



*Figure 5. Respondents' opinions about the degree of importance of English*

The results show a clear contrast between the degree of importance of English for the learners and its status in the department. The majority of the participants consider English as important and/or necessary despite the fact that it is neglected within the scope of their studies.

### **3.1.2.1.7. Results in learners attitudes towards the four skills**

#### **a. Degree of difficulty**

Learners' opinions about the difficulty of the language skills are investigated through question 7. Statements (7.A), (7.B), (7.C) and (7.D) describe activities which involve listening, speaking, writing and reading respectively, as the main used skills for each activity, though some activities may make use of more than one skill at the same time. In their responses for statement (7.A) which involves listening, 21 participants (22.34%) reported that the described task is very difficult; 24 participants (25.53%) said it is difficult; only 5 participants (5.31%) said it is easy; and 2 participants (2.12%) reported that the task is very easy. However, 42 participants (44.68%) described the task to be medium.

Statement (7.B) which involves speaking received a slightly different description, since 22 participants (23.40%) opted for the easiness of the task among which 3 participants (3.19%) said it is very easy. However, 20 participants (24.28%) reported that the task is very difficult and 23 participants (24.47%) that it is difficult. 31 participants (32.98%) described it as medium.

Statement (7.C) which describes a writing task collected 14 'very difficult' (14.89%); 27 'difficult' (28.72%); 32 'medium' (32.98%); 14 'easy' (14.89%); and only 8 'very easy' (8.51%).

Participants’ description of the reading task described in statement (7.D) was more oriented towards difficulty, since 51 of them (54.26%) – among which 23 participants (24.47%) said it is very difficult – reported the difficulty of the task. However, 32 participants (34.04%) said that the task is easy and only 11 participants (11.70%) opted for the easiness of the task, among which 2 respondents (2.12%) said it is very easy. Table 6 below displays the results of question 7.

Table 6: *Degrees of difficulty of the four skills*

	Very Difficult	Difficult	Medium	Easy	Very Easy
Statement 7.A	21	24	42	5	2
Statement 7.B	20	23	29	19	3
Statement 7.C	14	27	31	14	8
Statement 7.D	23	28	32	9	2

**b. Learning Preferences**

Learners’ preferences of the language skills are investigated through question 8. Statements (8.A), (8.B), (8.C) and (8.D) are the same statements used in question 7, involving listening, speaking, writing and reading as the main skills used to fulfil the described tasks respectively. From the participants, we may clearly define listening as the most preferred skill that learners want to learn, since 54 participants (57.45%) set statement (8.A) in the 1<sup>st</sup> position; 18 of them (19.15%) set it in the 2<sup>nd</sup> position; and only 11 participants (11.70%) set it in the 3<sup>rd</sup> and in the 4<sup>th</sup> position. However, the learning preferences regarding the other skills were not clear cut, since statement (8.B) was set 13 times in the 1<sup>st</sup> position; 18 times in the 2<sup>nd</sup>; 34 times in the 3<sup>rd</sup>; and 29 times in the 4<sup>th</sup> position. On its turn statement (8.C) was set 18 times in the 1<sup>st</sup> position; 30 times in the 2<sup>nd</sup>; 20 times in the 3<sup>rd</sup>; and 26

times in the last position. And statement (8.D) was set in the 1<sup>st</sup> position 10 times; in the 2<sup>nd</sup> position 28 times; in the 3<sup>rd</sup> position 29 times; and 27 times in the last position. Table 7 below summarises the results of this category.

Table 7: *Learning preferences of the four skills*

	1 <sup>st</sup> Position	2 <sup>nd</sup> Position	3 <sup>rd</sup> Position	4 <sup>th</sup> Position
Statement 8.A	54	18	11	11
Statement 8.B	13	18	34	29
Statement 8.C	18	30	20	26
Statement 8.D	10	28	29	27

### 3.1.2.1.8. Results in Learning Preferences of Classroom Activities

Learning preferences of classroom activities are investigated through question 15. The categorisation of the statements is based on classroom activities' focus. Learners' behaviour oriented statements include statements: (15.B), (15.F), (15.G), (15.H), (15.I), (15.J), (15.K) and (15.L). However, the statements focusing on the object or the subject to be mastered include statements: (15.A), (15.C), (15.D), (15.E), (15.M), (15.N) and (15.O). Participants define their preferences by attributing ascending scores from '0 point' for the activities that they prefer not to have in their English classes to '4 points' for activities that they really like to do when attending the English class.

#### a. Results in Learners' Behaviour Oriented Activities

Participants' responses showed a sharply descending scoring of the behaviour oriented activities as related to the level of individual kinaesthetic performance learners are requested to use in order to perform the described

activities. For the statements describing acting activities, for instance, 63 participants (67.02%) attributed ‘0 point’ to statement (15.H) and 61 participants (64.89%) attributed the same score to statement (15.I). Statement (15.B) – with less individual performance requirements – was scored ‘0 point’ by 35 participants (37.23%). However, only 8, 12 and 9 participants attributed ‘4 points’ respectively to statements (15.H), (15.I) and (15.B). The details of learners’ preferences related to these statements are provided in figure 6 below.

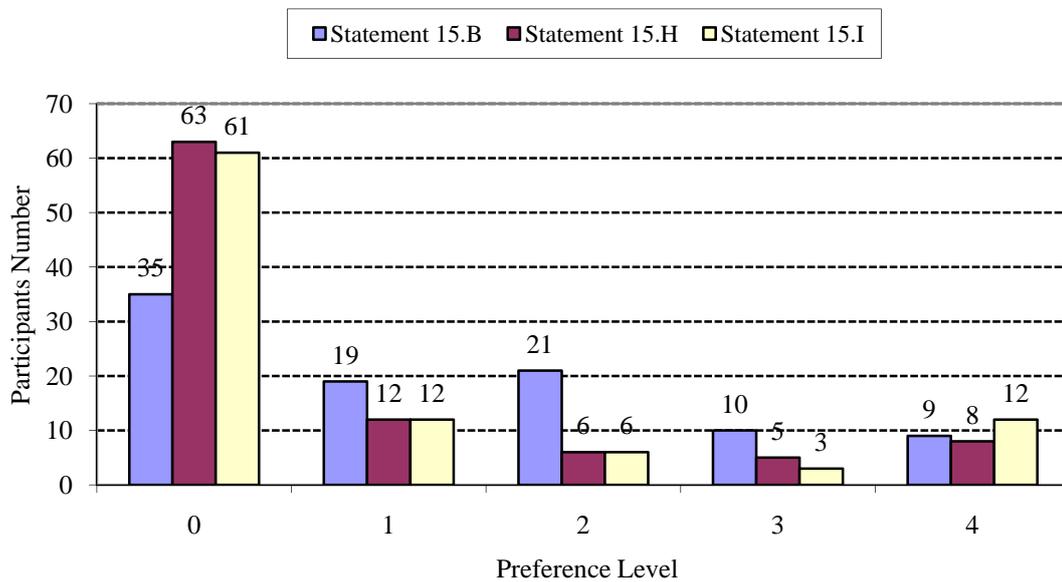


Figure 6. Respondents’ level of preference for behaviour oriented activities  
(Statements: 15.B, 15.H and 15.I)

With lower individual kinaesthetic performance requirements than those of acting, the activities described in statements (15.F), (15.J) and (15.K) collected a fairly less sharp scoring. For example, the three statements were scored ‘0 points’ respectively by 23, 23 / (24.47%) and 22 participants (23.40%). Similarly, they were scored ‘4points’ by 13 / (13.83%), 16 / (17.02%) and 17 participants (18.09%), respectively. Even though, the participants’ general opinion remains negatively

oriented towards those activities. The details of learners’ preferences related to these statements are provided in figure 7 below.

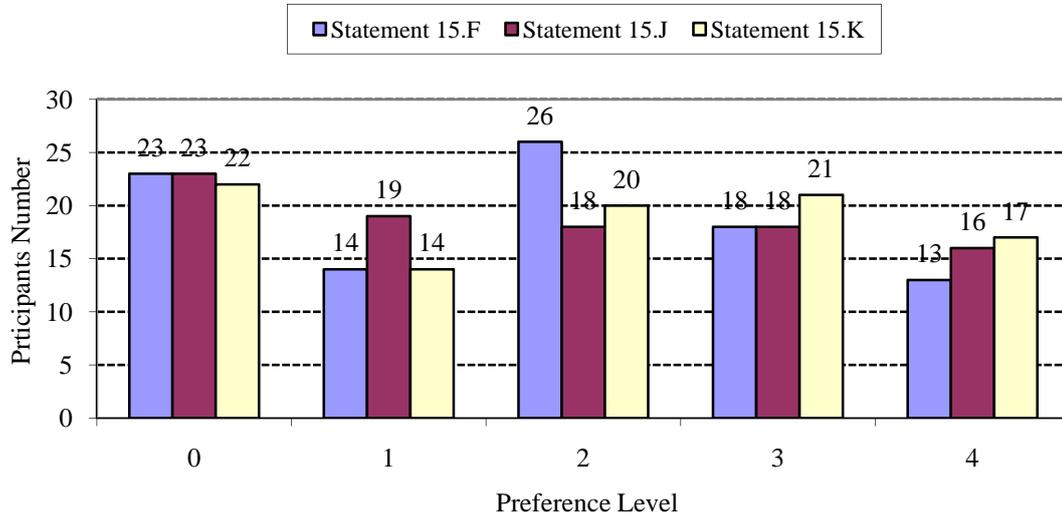


Figure 7. Respondents’ level of preference for behaviour oriented activities  
(Statements: 15.F, 15.J and 15.K)

Turning towards a slightly positive opinion, statement (15.G) was scored ‘4 points’ by 19 participants (20.21%). However, 16 participants (17.02%) gave ‘0 point’ to the statements. Statement (15.L), too, was scored ‘4 points’ by 24 participants (25.53%) and ‘0 point’ by only 14 participants (14.89%). The details of learners’ preferences related to these statements are provided in figure 8 below.

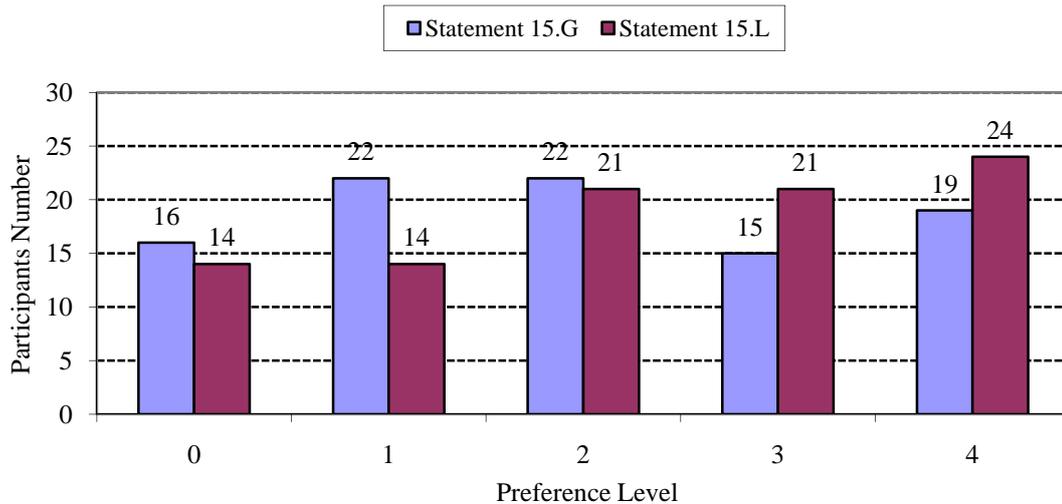


Figure 8. Respondents’ level of preference for behaviour oriented activities

(Statements: 15.G and 15.L)

**b. Results in Subject Mastering Oriented Activities**

The statements of this category describe activities which do not require from learners a high level of individual kinaesthetic performance. The statements received a fairly positive opinion, since common activities described in statements (15.A), (15.C) and (15.D) were scored ‘0 points’ by 11 participants (11.70%), 12 participants (12.77%) and 11 participants (11.70%) respectively. The same statements were given ‘4points’ respectively by 23 / (24.47%), 25 / (26.60%) and 18 participants (19.15%). However, statement (15.E) which involves writing was negatively scored as it was given ‘0 point’ by 21 participants (22.34%) and ‘4 points’ by only 5 participants (5.31%). Further details of learners’ preferences related to these statements are provided in figure 9 below.

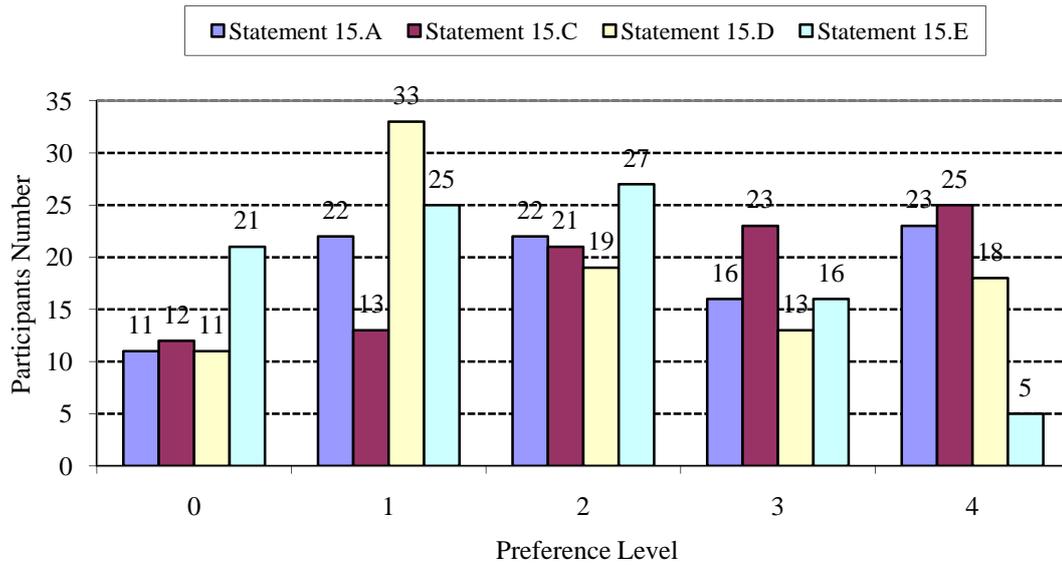


Figure 9. Respondents’ level of preference for subject mastering oriented activities (Statements: 15.A, 15.C, 15.D and 15.E)

Belonging to the same category, statements (15.M), (15.N) and (15.O) describing activities which involve games collected a higher positive opinion among participants. 37 participants (39.36%) attributed ‘4 points’ to statement (15.N) and only 5 participants (5.31%) gave ‘0 point’ to the same statement. Likewise, statements (15.O) and (15.M) were scored ‘4 points’ by 27 participants (28.72%) and 24 participants (25.53%) respectively. However, 11 participants (11.70%) gave ‘0 point’ to statement (15.O) and only 9 participants (9.57%) gave ‘0 point’ to statement (15.M). Further details of learners’ preferences related to these statements are provided in figure 10 below.

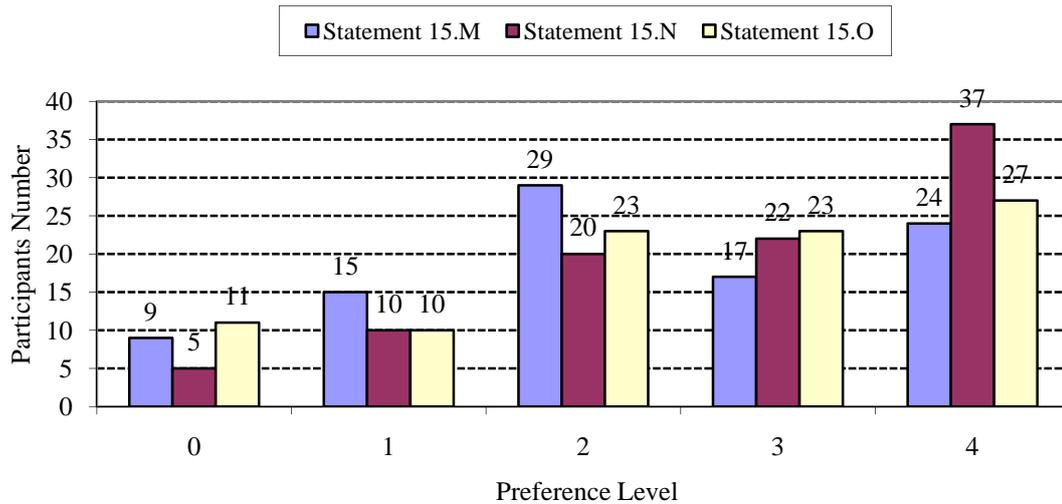


Figure 10. Respondents’ level of preference for subject mastering oriented activities (Statements: 15.M, 15.N and 15.O)

### 3.1.2.1.9. Results in Learners’ Individual Efforts to Learn English Outside the Classroom

Learners’ individual efforts to learn English outside the classroom are investigated through questions 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14. This category is intended to investigate the frequency, the reasons, the way and the choice of materials related to learners’ individual efforts.

In their responses, 41 participants (43.62%) reported that they study English outside the classroom. However, 53 participants (56.38%) answered ‘No’ to the question.

#### a. Results in the Frequency of Studying English outside the Classroom

Though the number of participants who reported that they study English is fairly significant (41 participants), the frequency revealed quite modest results, since 29 of them (70.73%) opted for the frequency adverb ‘sometimes’ and 8 participants (19.51%) reported that they rarely study English out of the classroom.

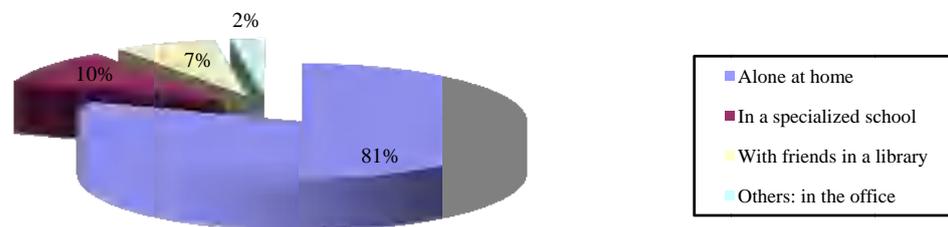
However, only 4 participants (9.75%) reported that they often study English outside the classroom.

The reasons of studying English outside the classroom are investigated through question 11. The results show that the personal interest is the major reason that pushes learners to study English outside the classroom. However, other factors such as time and materials also play a significant role. Table 8 below displays the details of the preferred reasons selected by the participants.

Table 8: *Participants justifications for their frequency of studying English outside the classroom*

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Selected (X) times</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
You like it	29	30.21 %
You need it for a job	23	23.96 %
You need it for chat	17	17.71 %
You lack materials	12	12.50 %
You don't have time	8	8.33 %
Availability of the materials	5	5.20 %
It is difficult	2	2.08 %
You are not interested	0	0 %
<b>Total</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>100 %</b>

How learners study English outside the classroom is investigated through question 12. Participants were asked to tick among three possibilities the one that fits better their way of studying English outside the classroom. In case the provided possibilities do not fit, participants can specify their own answer. The responses show that the majority of the participants study English alone at home. The details of participants' answers to question 12 are represented in figure 11 below.



*Figure 11.* Respondents' ways of studying English outside the classroom

#### **b. Results in the Materials Used to Study English outside the Classroom**

The use of materials in studying English outside the classroom is investigated through questions 13 and 14. In question 13, participants were asked to tick the frequency that corresponds more to their use of the different materials proposed. The results show a distinction in the frequency of use of the different materials based on the availability of the materials, since movies and songs together with dictionaries proved to be highly used by learners. However, participants have shown a reluctant use of magazines, CDs/software, books and the internet. Table 9 below displays further details of learners' use of those materials according the frequency of use.

Table 9: *Participants’ most used materials to study English outside the classroom*

<b>Materials</b>	<b>Never</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Always</b>
Movies	7	8	13	13
Dictionaries	2	13	14	12
Songs	9	13	7	12
Internet	16	10	7	8
Books	13	17	5	6
CDs/Software	20	12	4	5
Magazines	28	12	1	0

Though the availability of materials showed to be a major factor in selecting the materials to use when learners study English outside the classes, other factors such as the presentation, the cost, the quality, challenge and reputation play an important role in this selection. Question 14 investigates those factors and the corresponding results are displayed in tables 10 below according to the participants’ preferences.

Table 10: *Participants’ factors of selection of the materials*

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Selected (X) times</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Availability	30	37.50 %
Presentation	23	28.75 %
Cost	9	11.75 %
Quality	7	8.75 %
Challenge	7	8.75 %
Reputation	4	5 %
<b>Total</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100 %</b>

#### 4. The Focused Pre-Testing Interview

As we opted for a ‘focused interview’ type, the structure of the interview guide was divided into areas of inquiry that we believe participants’ talk would reveal appropriate data to answer the research questions. Merton et al (1956) and Robson (1993) defined the focused interview as an approach which allows people’s views and feelings to emerge. It can be used where we want to investigate a particular situation, phenomenon or event (e.g., a youth training programme, an X-

ray unit, or a TV programme) and it concentrates on the subjective experiences of those involved (Robson, 1993, p.241). Hence, the choice of the focused interview type was motivated by the need for more reliable data about the learners' opinions that emerge from their own personal subjective experiences.

#### **4.1.Design and Implementation**

The pre-testing interview was divided into four (04) areas of inquiry (see appendix 3)

- Students' opinions about the teaching learning contexts
- The degree of involvement of learners in the learning process
- Students' needs
- Students' learning strategies

The first and second areas are intended to allow participants to talk about their personal experiences concerning the ways they have been taught English in the department of commerce and the effect of that kind of study on their involvement in the learning process. However, the third and the fourth areas are intended to collect data about learners' needs and learning strategies.

The pre-testing interviews were conducted at the very beginning of the academic year 2009/2010 (see appendix 5). Learners of the four groups were asked if they would accept to be interviewed – and video recorded – about their personal experiences and opinions about the research's topic. The teacher, who is the researcher at the same time, explained in detail the aim of the study and the intended process. After being introduced to the scenario-based methodology, the learners were clearly warned that their participation in the interview will involve their participation in the English classes that will be given – apart from the weekly

English class organized by the department's administration – twice a week, based on the scenario-based methodology. Moreover, the teacher clearly explained that post-testing interviews will be conducted at the end of the experiment, and the same informants' participation will be indispensable for the fulfilment of the whole research work. Learners were assured about the confidentiality of the experiment and its purely educational use and purposes.

## **4.2.Results of the Pre-Testing Interviews**

### **4.2.1. Results in Students' Opinions about the Teaching Learning Contexts**

This category was investigated through the first area of inquiry. Participants' talk revealed a fairly negative vision of the English teaching / learning process in the department of Commerce. Though each participant counted his/her personal experience, some expressions demonstrating the same opinion were used by the majority of the participants. The participants' talk in about this area of inquiry was categorised into nine sub-categories, the results of which will be demonstrated hereby from the most to the least frequent.

#### **4.2.1.1.Negative Opinions about the Teachers**

In the first position, teachers received the highest rate of negative opinion among the participants. Table 11 below displays the main expressions participants used to talk about teachers' level, behaviours and attitudes (some expressions were not mentioned because they express the same opinions).

Table 11: *Participants’ negative expressions about the teachers*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
Teachers do not care about learners’ understanding	4
Teachers’ pronunciation is difficult to understand	3
Teachers have different methods	3
Teachers never accept to explain in French or in Arabic	2
There are no teachers with high degrees (Magister / Doctorate)	1
Teachers think learners’ level is bad	1
Teachers do not try their best	1
Teachers are not well trained	1
Teachers are bored and tired	1
Score 10 is assured for all	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>18</b>

#### 4.2.1.2.Negative Opinions about the Content

The content of the English lessons came in the second position. Table 12 below displays the main expressions participants used to talk about quality of the content.

Table 12: *Participants’ negative expressions about the content of the lessons*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
Nothing new	6
The same thing as in middle and secondary school	5
The level is for beginners	2
Except from some business terminology there is nothing new	1
Advancing backward policy	1
Good score are easy to get	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>16</b>

#### 4.2.1.3. Negative Opinion about the Teaching Methodology

The third position was given to the teaching methodologies. Participants' negative talk related to this point is categorised into two sub-categories:

##### 4.2.1.3.1. Negative description of the method

Table 13 below demonstrates the expressions that participants used to describe the kind activities they had in the classroom.

Table 13: *Participants' negative expressions to describe the teaching methodologies*

Expressions	Said (X) times
Only grammar is studied	6
Writing on the board	3
Dictation	2
Copying what the teacher writes	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>13</b>

##### 4.2.1.3.2. Negative Evaluation of the Method

Table 14 below demonstrates the different expressions used by the participants to evaluate the teaching methodologies.

Table 14: *Participants' negative expressions to evaluate the teaching methodologies*

Expressions	Said (X) times
Routine	3
Weak method	2
Non efficient method	2
Traditional teaching	1
Inadequate climate	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>09</b>

#### 4.2.1.4. Negative Consequences on the Learners

Negative consequences on the learners came in the fourth position. The expressions in table 15 were used by the participants to talk about the issue.

Table 15: *Participants' expressions about the negative effects of the situation on the learners*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
Learners do not benefit from English classes	4
There is no motivation to study	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>07</b>

#### 4.2.1.5. The Problem of Timing

Though it has a major influence on learners, the timing problem occupied the fifth position since it was mentioned only five times. Table 16 below displays the relative expressions used by the participants.

Table 16: *Participants' expressions about the problem of timing*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
The problem is in the timing	3
Studying English in the afternoon is tiring	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>05</b>

#### 4.2.1.6. Negative Opinion about Learners

As a matter of fact, some participants recognized that the problem is not only the teacher or the methodology. They reported that the learners, too, are responsible of the situation. Table 17 shows the expressions used to talk about the point.

Table 17: *Participants’ negative expressions about the learners*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
Learners do not care about English	3
Some teachers are good, The problem is in the learners	1
English classes are a kind of joke sessions	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>05</b>

#### 4.2.1.7. Negative Reasons of Attending the Classes

In the seventh position, participants talked about learner’s reasons to attend the English classes. The used expressions are shown in table 18 below.

Table 18: *Participants’ expressions about the negative reasons of attending the English classes*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
Attendance is question of scores and absences	3
When English classes took place in an Amphi. We never attended	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>04</b>

#### 4.2.1.8. The Position of English in the Department of Commerce

The last position was attributed to the position of English in the department of Commerce. The issue was mentioned only twice. Table 19 below displays the participants’ expressions to talk about it.

Table 19: *Participants’ negative expressions about the position of English in the department*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
English is not given an important position in the department	1
There is no predetermined program by the administration	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>02</b>

#### 4.2.2. Results in the Degree of Involvement of Learners in the Learning process

The degree of involvement and participation was investigated through the second area of inquiry of the focused interview. Similarly, this category collected a fairly clear negative opinion among the participants. The majority of the participants reported that they were not involved and that they did not participate. The used expressions were categorised, according to the level of negativities, into three categories. Level 3 was given to the expressions in which participants expressed their firm negative opinion about the issue; level 2 was given to the expressions in which participants expressed a less negative opinion; and level 1 was given to the fairly positive expressions that participants used to talk about the issue. Level 3 category's expressions were the most frequent ones: 9 participants (75%), for example, reported that they were not involved in the English classes and that they did not participate. Further details of participants' opinion about the degree of involvement and participation are displayed in tables 20, 21 and 22 below.

Table 20: *Participants' negative expressions about their degree of involvement (level 3 category)*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
I was not involved	9
I didn't participate	9
Only few learners participated	6
We can't fool ourselves saying that there was participation	1
Participation makes you look ridiculous especially when you commit mistakes	1
No contact between the teacher and the learners	1
Some learners never participate	1
I didn't care about participation	1

Table 21: *Participants' negative expressions about their degree of involvement (level 2 category)*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
I wanted to participate but I ...	2
Those who participated have a good level	1
We were always tired at the end of day	1
We participated only when it concerned games	1
My degree of involvement decreased comparing to secondary school	1
Teachers do not give us the opportunity the participate	1
Teachers do not ask about opinions	1

Table 22: *Participants' negative expressions about their degree of involvement (level 1 category)*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
I participate only when the teacher is cool	2
I used to be able participate but I couldn't carry on because of the teachers' methods	2
I was 50 % involved	1
I participate only when I know the answers	1
I always participate	1
I liked to participate	1

#### **4.2.3. Results in Learners' Needs for English**

The third area of inquiry investigated learners' needs to study English. The majority of learners reported that English is very important and highly necessary nowadays, either for personal or professional needs; they asserted that they need English for everything. However, participants' talk demonstrated a lack of awareness of the professional business skills such as telephoning, negotiating, e-mailing... etc, since none of them have mentioned these skills. Table 23 below

displays a needs categorisation of the expressions participants used to talk about the issue.

Table 23: *Participants' expressions about their needs to study English*

Needs Category	Expressions	Said (X) times
General Needs	English is a necessity nowadays	7
	English opens many doors	2
	I need English for everything	1
Individual Psychological Needs	I need English for personal fulfilment	6
	Mastering English is an individual richness	1
	I hate the feeling of being out, English helps to understand	1
Professional Needs	I need English to find a good job	7
	English is a prerequisite in foreign companies	5
	It helps me in my studies and research	2
	I need <b>it</b> for travelling abroad	1
Practical Needs	I need English to understand TV programs	3
	I need it to be able to read leaflets	1
	I need it to be able to understand the instructions	1
	English is necessary to use technology: internet, telecommunication products	1
No Need	We don't need English to find a job in Algeria	3
	I don't need English	1

#### 4.2.4. Results in Learners' Learning Strategies

Learning strategies were investigated through the last area of inquiry. Participants' talk about this point was more focused on suggesting solutions that may help them learn English better rather than individual learning strategies. The expression used by the participants were categorised into four categories as related to the teachers, the teaching materials, the learners themselves and skills. Table 24 below displays the details of the participants' talk related to the learning strategies.

Table 24: *Participants' expressions about their learning strategies*

Category	Expressions	Said (X) times
Related to the Teachers	Teachers should break the barrier between them and learners	7
	We need a direct connection with the teacher	5
	We need good teachers	2
	Teachers should avoid being strict and severe	2
	Teachers should use gestures to explain instead of using Arabic	1
	Teachers should explain more in Arabic	1
Related to the Materials	We need to watch videos	6
	We need to use pictures	3
	We need audio-visual materials	3
	We need real examples	1
Related to the Learners	The use of technology is attractive	3
	New method enhance learners' curiosity	3
	Getting started is the problem	2
	We need to study something relevant to our domain	1
	We need more challenge	1
Related to the Skills	We need to listen and practice	6
	We need to listen to songs and play games...etc	3
	We need to use dialogues	3
	We need to read books or newspapers	2

At the end of the interviews, participants were asked to provide suggestions or additional recommendations. Those latter will not appear in the analysis since they were almost repetitions of what had been said earlier.

### Summary of the Results and Conclusion

The questionnaire's results reveal a significant support to what we stated at the very beginning as related to the English teaching/learning situation in the department of Commerce. It has, however, revealed a fairly positive opinion about

English as a subject which we described earlier as being considered unimportant by learners. In fact, the results revealed that learners are theoretically aware of the importance of English for their future professional lives, yet, they believe it does not worth bothering themselves studying it at the University since neither the administration nor the teachers are making enough effort to make it seem interesting. This concluding opinion is in harmony with the pre-testing interviews' results: since a considerable amount of sharp negative talk was directed to the teachers and their methods, the content they provided and to the administrative issues such as timing and subjects' ranking. The questionnaire and the pre-testing interviews' results both have clearly demonstrated the negative influence of the above mentioned factors on the learning environment and hence on the learners' motivation and willingness to participate in the classroom activities.

Further, the results of both tools can be said to follow the same direction as related to the learners' learning preferences and strategies: the majority of learners expressed their desire to understand English either when it is spoken or written. They have also expressed a strong desire to communicate in English mainly in the spoken form. However, the questionnaire's results revealed a highly reluctant attitude towards the behaviour oriented activities, which are in the core of the scenario-based methodology, contrasting with subject mastering oriented activities which received a significant positive attitude from the learners. This might be caused by the learners' low proficiency in English which hinders their ability to perform activities based on their own behaviour and decision-making. This low proficiency increases the learners' anxiety whenever they are asked to perform communicative activities on the one hand, and promote their preference to go through subject mastering oriented activities on the other hand.

The questionnaire's results reveal, also, a significant number of learners who study English outside the classroom. However, what they reported as studying outside the classroom is limited to the restricted use of the most available materials – mainly movies and songs – depending on their presentation. In other words, there is no real willingness in doing organized and targeted efforts to learn English outside the classroom. Whenever the opportunity to learn new vocabulary from free available materials is presented, learners find it interesting to pick up what they can from it.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION AND EXPERIMENT**

### **RESULTS**

#### **Introduction**

The investigation of the existing teaching/learning situation of English in the department of Commerce at Mentouri University in Constantine was carried out to pave the way to the implementation and the testing of the scenario-based methodology. This chapter intends to investigate the effect of the scenario-based methodology on the learners' motivation by the use of classroom observation and video recorded interviews. We start by describing the design and the implementation of the experiment then we display the results of both tools to end up with the discussion of those results in the light of the theoretical survey provided in the previous chapters. As any kind of research inevitably involves limitations, we devoted a section of this chapter to display those limitations and explain their influence on the study. At the end, the chapter provides some pedagogical implications that we assume are directly related to the results of the study.

#### **1. Classroom Observation**

##### **1.1.Design and implementation**

The experiment was conducted with the twelve-participant sample selected for the interview. This sample received, in addition to the scheduled English session with the whole group, two scenario-based English classes per week. The first two sessions were devoted to:

1) Introducing the participants to each other: participants were requested to talk, using the target language, about themselves, their hobbies, what they like and dislikes as related to different personal topics such TV, food, friendship, social life

and marriage, ... etc. By this introduction we aimed at creating a kind of positive social environment in which talking to an unknown person wouldn't be a hindrance;

2) Promoting the participants' awareness about the utilitarian communicative value of the experiment they will participate in, and providing details about the way the experiment will be conducted.

The use of classroom observation, in our work, aims at displaying the degree of participants' motivated behaviour that we observed along the scenario-based classes in order to support the set hypothesis. Participants didn't accept to be recorded at the beginning of the experiment; they showed a kind of hesitation and anxiety. We succeeded in convincing them to be recorded only after six months of practice and though their behaviour was clearly affected by the camcorder. The provided video sample was recorded at the very end of the academic year. By that time, the exams were close and it had become difficult to arrange extra English classes since many teachers did the same in order to catch up on their programs. Consequently, four participants were absent and three of them came very late.

The video recording was, though, included in the research tools because we believe the participants' motivated behaviours were spontaneous and fairly representative of the observed behaviours along the whole academic year. We assume, however, that the results cannot be generalized to the concerned department since the experiment took place within completely different settings from those existing in usual English classes at the departments of business studies.

## 1.2.Procedure

We developed a code scheme inspired from the motivation orientation of language teaching (MOLT) observation scheme. The MOLT observation scheme was used to assess the teachers' use of motivational strategies, along with a post-hoc rating scale filled in by the observer. The MOLT follows the real-time coding principle of Spada and Frohlich's (1995) communication orientation of language teaching (COLT) scheme but uses categories of observable teacher behaviours derived from Dornyei's (2001b) motivational strategies framework for foreign language classrooms. The results indicate that the language teachers' motivational practice is linked to increased levels of the learners' motivated learning behaviour as well as their motivational state (Guilloteaux and Dornyei, 2008).

However, since our research focuses more on the learners' motivation, the code scheme's variables were mainly determined around the learners' motivated behaviour. We categorized the classroom observation variables into two main categories; one related to the learners and the other to the teacher. The first category was further divided into three subcategories as related to the learners' participation, attention and comfort within the context. The second category, too, was divided into two subcategories as related to the teacher's motivating behaviours and the participation structure. (see appendix 4)

We processed the data by taking minute by minute recording of the variables' occurrence based on what the video displays as picture and sound. Henceforth, the recorded behaviours vary according to the participants' different behaviours within the observed minute which may include more than one at the same time (behaviours are not mutually exclusive). The recordings were processed

on an excel sheet by attributing the number '1' to the corresponding observed behaviour within the observed minute.

The weakest point of the video recording, that we admit has a great influence on the obtained results, is that the recording was done by the observer himself. Provided that the observer is the teacher and the researcher at the same time, the scope of recording was limited by both the camcorder's position and the teacher's ability to direct it. However, some features of the learners' behaviour were recorded according to the sound (whenever the picture didn't cover the whole classroom) and to the observer's memory. (see appendix 6)

### **1.3. Classroom Observation Results**

Since the focus of the study is on the learners, the classroom observation results are presented according to the three categories of the participants' observed behaviours.

#### **1.3.1. Results in Learners' Participation Degree**

Before displaying the results, it must be noted that the observed behaviours were either individual behaviours such as: suggesting answers, asking for the teacher's help and asking for peers' help, or pair/group behaviours such as: engaging in authentic actions, sharing planning and decision making. Engaging in dynamic movements and peer-based feedback were observed as both individual and pair/group behaviours.

The observed behaviours include the participants' interaction and actions to comply with the scenario-based methodology's features. Participants spent 76 minutes (63.33%) of the class time engaging in authentic actions such as calling someone on the phone to arrange a meeting, discussing work plans with peers as in

a real work meeting...etc. 39 minutes (32.50%) of the session were spent in sharing planning; participants either prepared their scenarios or undertook modifications whenever they did not feel satisfied. Another behaviour that was significantly observed is peer-based feedback, either as a reaction to volunteering suggestions or to scenarios' actions, participants' peer-based feedback was observed in 31 minutes (25.83%), mainly during the last third of the class time when scenarios were acted out. Table 25 below displays further details about the participants' motivated behaviours paralleled with the participation structure.

Table 25: *Participants' observed motivated behaviours*

Observed behaviours	Minutes												Total	Percentage
	00-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100	101-110	111-120		
Volunteering /	4	4	2	0	3	1	1	0	2	2	0	1	20	16,67%
Suggesting answers in	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	6	1	7	4	20	16,67%
Engagement in dynamic movements	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	6	1	7	4	20	16,67%
Engagement in authentic actions	1	0	10	9	1	0	9	9	10	10	8	9	76	63,33%
Sharing planning	0	2	0	0	4	6	2	2	5	5	7	6	39	32,50%
Sharing decision making	0	1	0	0	0	2	3	5	8	4	3	0	26	21,67%
Asking for teacher's help	0	2	0	1	2	5	4	4	4	2	3	4	31	25,83%
Asking for peers' help	2	4	1	0	3	1	1	0	0	1	2	0	15	12,50%
Peer-based feedback	1	2	1	0	1	0	1	2	3	7	5	8	31	25,83%
<b>Group work</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>65,83%</b>
<b>Pair work</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>11,67%</b>

### 1.3.2. Results in Learners' Attention

The observed behaviours include non verbal behaviours displayed by the participants, mainly, as reactions to the teacher's explanations and behaviours. Table 26 below displays the detailed occurrence of three behaviours which we assume being highly representative of the participants' attention.

Table 26: *Participants' observed attention's behaviours*

Observed behaviours	Minutes											Total	Percentage	
	00-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100	101-110			111-120
Facial agreement	8	4	3	6	1	1	1	2	0	2	1	0	29	24,17%
Note taking	8	5	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	15	12,50%
Attentive look	8	2	4	3	2	3	3	6	5	1	3	5	45	37,50%

The most observed behaviour participants demonstrated is the attentive look; it was observed during 45 minutes (37.50%). However, the occurrence of this behaviour was highly observed during the first ten minutes of the session as a reaction to the great amount of information provided by the teacher at the beginning of the class. It has, then, decreased significantly while participants were engaged in authentic actions either in pairs or in group work.

### 1.3.3. Results in Learners' Comfort Degree within the Context

The participants' degree of comfort was observed through apparent behaviours which clearly demonstrate the learners at ease with the classroom context. Among those behaviours, smiling was observed during 90 minutes (75%) of the session. Laughing, too, was observed during 36 minutes (30%). During the

last 10 minutes, participants demonstrated a fairly significant success happiness which was shared by them. Another behaviour which was observed during 32 minutes along the whole session was the social chat. The latter was observed as a discrete and slightly secret behaviour shared in pairs. Table 27 below displays the details of occurrence of the above mentioned behaviours.

Table 27: *Participants’ observed comfort with the context*

Observed behaviours	Minutes												Total	Percentage
	00-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100	101-110	111-120		
Smiling	10	10	8	8	9	6	9	8	8	6	6	2	<b>90</b>	<b>75,00%</b>
Laughing	2	3	5	2	1	0	4	3	4	4	5	3	<b>36</b>	<b>30,00%</b>
Sharing success happiness	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	6	<b>8</b>	<b>6,67%</b>
Social chat	4	3	1	2	3	2	2	6	3	0	4	2	<b>32</b>	<b>26,67%</b>

## 2. The Post-Testing Interview

### 2.1.Design and Implementation

The post-testing interview was divided into four (04) areas of inquiry (see appendix 3)

- Students’ opinions about the scenario-based methodology’s contexts.
- The degree of involvement of learners in the learning process.
- Students’ personal satisfaction or dissatisfaction (self-evaluation) of their needs through the experiment.
- Students’ suggestions (if any).

The first and second areas are intended to allow participants to give their opinions and talk about their personal experiences concerning the English classes given in the scenario-based methodology and the affect of created contexts on their involvement in the learning process. The third area is intended to collect data about learners' evaluation of the scenario-based methodology as related to their needs. The last area of inquiry is about suggestions: Participants were required to talk about the shortcomings of the scenario-based English classes and to provide their suggestions to improve the teaching method.

The post-testing interviews were conducted at the end of the academic year 2009/2010 before the final exams (see appendix 7). With no further explanation, the teacher reminded the participants about the confidentiality of the interviews and their strict educational use, since the interviews were conducted with the twelve learners that participated in the pre-testing interviews.

## **2.2. Results of the Post-Testing Interview**

### **2.2.1. Results in Learners' Opinions about the Scenario-Based Methodology's Contexts**

Participants' opinions about the scenario-based methodology's contexts were investigated through the first area of inquiry. The thing that worth mentioning is the variety of expressions rather than their frequency since participants used a large number of different expressions to talk about the experience they went through. These expressions were categorised into three categories as related to the description of the method, the effects it has on learners within the classroom and its effects after the class. Tables 28, 29 and 30 below display the details of the expressions used by the participants to talk about the issue.

Table 28: *Participants' talk related to the description of the scenario-based method*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
It was a very efficient method	5
It was a very beneficial experience	3
It is an efficient method	2
It was a good experience	2
I got a lot of benefit	2
It is an attractive method	2
It created a wonderful climate	2
It is efficient and relaxing and helps memorize	1
It is an active method	1
I learned a lot from this experience	1
There is no barrier	1
It was an excellent method	1
The teacher's way was good	1
It is a very motivating method	1
Topics were interesting	1

Table 29: *Participants' talk related to the effect of the method within the classroom*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
We can speak freely	3
It gives more opportunities of practice	3
It encourages me to make more efforts at home	3
It breaks the ice	2
It gives an idea about the use of English in professional contexts	2
It helped me discover new things about English	2
Listening helped us to speak	2
it makes you create your own scenarios	2
It helps you talk your own way	2
It combines speech with action	1
Action makes you learn better	1
It helps you to recall previous knowledge	1
We talk even if we commit mistakes	1
Discussing helped us to progress	1

Table 30: *Participants’ talk related to effects of the method after the classroom*

<b>Expressions</b>	<b>Said (X) times</b>
We feel at ease	3
It makes me love English	3
It breaks the barrier between us and the language	2
It made me self confident	1
It increased the desire to learn	1
It increased my interest in learning English	1
We get used to the language	1
It helps you forget you weakness	1
It helps you like English and make efforts outside the classroom	1
I feel no more shy	1
I changed my vision to English	1
It helps me remember	1
It keeps you waiting for the English class	1
It helps integrate the professional life	1

These expressions clearly confirm the positive effect of the scenario-based methodology on the learners’ motivation and involvement. They provide a valuable evidence of the methodology’s role in enhancing the latter variables as it is set in the hypothesis of the study.

**2.2.2. Results in Learners’ Degree of Involvement and Participation**

The degree of involvement and learners’ participation were investigated through the second area of inquiry. Participants’ talk about the issue was divided into four categories as related to: the participant’s talk about his own degree of involvement and participation; how the has the respondent seen the other participants’ involvement; the participation motives; and the role of the context. The general opinion that the majority of the participants reported is that they were involved as well as their classmates because of the created context which allows them to participate without any hesitation and anxiety. Further details about the

expressions that participants used to talk about the issue are displayed in table 31 below.

Table 31: *Participants’ talk about their degree of involvement in the scenario-based lectures*

Category	Expressions	Said (X) times
Related to the respondent himself	I was involved, you must get involved	7
	I was not 100% involved but comparing to the recent years there is a big difference	3
	You give your opinion spontaneously	2
	I participated 100% by desire	1
	I liked to participate	1
	Even when I didn't participate I liked listening to the others	1
	In case I lack vocabulary, I ask the teacher then I participate	1
	I still lack participation because I don't master well the language	1
	My participation was efficient	1
I wanted to be effective	1	
Related to the other participants	The learners were 100% involved	2
	Even weak learners participated	2
	They created a good atmosphere to participate	1
	I noticed a great involvement on the other learners	1
Related to the motives	There is no fear to participate	3
	Both obligation and desire pushed me to participate	2
	Both challenge and desire pushed me to participate	2
Related to the context	The topics pushed us to participate	1
	It gets you involved because it is very motivating	2
	It helps getting involved	1
	It gave the opportunity to participate every session	1
	It get in unintentionally	1

### 2.2.3. Results in Learners’ Needs Satisfaction.

Learners’ needs satisfaction was investigated through the third area of inquiry. Participants’ talk revealed a fairly high satisfaction among them. The expressions used by the participants are categorized into two categories. In the first category, participants firmly confirmed their satisfaction, however, in the second the

confirmation was relative. Table 32 below displays the details about the expressions used by the participants to talk about the issue.

Table 32: *Participants' talk related to their needs satisfaction from the scenario-based lectures*

Category	Expressions	Said (X) times
Firm Confirmation	It was satisfactory	4
	We benefited a lot	2
	I was satisfied to a great extent	1
	Incomparable benefit	1
	It fits all my needs and expectations	1
Relative Confirmation	It is satisfactory in the sense that I feel at ease with English	3
	My satisfaction is in speaking	2
	My needs were relatively satisfied	1
	75% - 80% satisfactory	1
	50% satisfactory	1
	It is satisfactory in the sense that it is practical and realistic	1

### 3. Discussion of the Results

The results of the classroom observation reveal that the use of the scenario-based methodology has created a motivating atmosphere in which learners felt at ease. Learners' degree of participation has significantly increased; they spent a large amount of time engaged in performing authentic actions that were part of the scenarios they were required to perform. Learners' attention, also, has been significantly apparent; they demonstrated a positive response to the teacher's instruction and to their peer reactions as well. These results clearly confirm the hypothesis of our research and go in the same direction with the post-testing interviews' results. In the latter, learners have clearly set their positive opinions and their self satisfaction about the method. Their talk revealed a kind of amazing context that they had never experienced before and which they qualified as

“wonderful”. This context has pushed the learners to come in contact with the language without hesitation or shyness. This context has provided many opportunities for speaking and encouraged learner to engage in conversations. It has broken the barrier that they described before as the obstacle they were not able to remove. Moreover, the scenario-based methodology proved to promote the learners’ desire to be efficient in the classroom and to accept challenges. It has also promoted their desire to study English outside the classroom, to revise their lessons at home which has significantly improved their level and strengthened their self confidence. Some learners’ even reported that their participation in the experiment has completely changed their vision to English and has enhanced their awareness about its professional use.

#### **4. Limitations of the Study**

Although the results of our investigation proved to go in the same direction of the research hypothesis, the work inevitably contains many constraints and limitations. The most significant limitation lies in the limited number of informants; it would be inconceivable to obtain the same results or even closer ones as far as the participation degree and the engagement in authentic activities are concerned within the real groups’ size in the department of Commerce. In that, we may argue that the scenario-based methodology is not recommended for large group classes. However, we believe that its adaptation to large groups may have a positive effect on the learners’ attention and may enhance their interest to make more individual efforts as to lighten the so negative effect produced by the different methods previously used to teach English in the department.

Another limitation is time. We believe that every new method may have a positive effect if administered in such a negative context as the one existing in the department of Commerce, mainly, because of its difference rather than its efficiency. Moreover, even efficient methodologies' effect may not always last. It would have generated more reliable results if the experiment was observed on a longer period.

Further, more reliable results would have been generated if the experiment had been carried out with more than one group sample and more than one teacher: since the selection of the sample, as some selected learners refused to participate in the study and were replaced by volunteers, might have biased the results of the research. Yet, it is worth mentioning that it is highly difficult to isolate the effect of the teacher's personality and motivational practices that teachers may use regardless of the teaching methodology they are using and the effect of the scenario-based courses' features. In other words, many factors such as the learners' background and the teacher's personality may greatly affect the motivated behaviours observed within the classroom interaction.

Another important limitation lies in the use of the video recording tool. Though the recorded behaviours were not completely different from those observed along the experiment, the video recording tool had greatly influenced the participants' behaviour in the sense that it has increased their anxiety and reduced their confidence. They accepted to be recorded only when they were performing the already prepared scenarios and not during the whole class. In that, we cannot assure that the participants' behaviours were spontaneous reactions to the presented scenarios.

## 5. Pedagogical Implications

Though we assumed that the results of our research cannot be generalized to the real settings of the Business English teaching in the concerned departments, these results have far-reaching practical implications in the sense that they confirm the belief held by many education experts that students' motivation is related to the learning context within which learning takes place. The most striking question is then whether something is going to be done to improve the position of English in the departments other than the English department. In this respect, we think it is useful to describe some of the implications of this study.

An important implication is that more materials for the teaching of Business English should be made available for both teachers and learners; we believe that the more these materials are available and easy to access, the more teachers and learners are likely to give more of their time and efforts to the subject.

Another point is the position of English as a subject in the department; we believe that any language class will not be given the right importance, by the learners, among a tenth of content specialized subjects unless the administration grants it that importance. The fact of considering English as a subject of secondary importance is likely to decrease the learners' interest in it.

Further, the pre-testing interviews revealed that learners are more likely to participate and get involved in the English classes if the latter were administered earlier in the morning. We tested this issue by administering the English classes within the scope of the research experiment and it proved that learners get easily engaged in the classroom activities if the class is administered early in the morning.

Another crucial point to the learners' motivation is the teacher's motivational practices. Given that student demotivation is a major problem in

educational settings worldwide, finding ways to raise teachers' awareness of their motivating practices and to train them in using skills that can help them to motivate learners should be a prominent methodological concern (Guilloteaux and Dornyei, 2008). The results of the recorded interviews display both the great importance and influence that teachers have on the learners' motivation and involvement. In this respect, we recommend that teachers should benefit from trainings in how to use the motivational strategies regardless of the department in which they will be required to teach. Guilloteaux and Dornyei, argued that the development of a theoretically sound and empirically tested teacher education module that focuses on the teacher's motivational practice would be an important step forward in making language education more effective (p. 73).

## **Conclusion**

The results obtained from the main investigation have brought a significant confirmation to the hypothesis set in the beginning of the study. The results of the main questionnaire and the pre-testing interviews displayed and discussed in chapter four provided a sound analysis of both the problematic situation which motivated the undertaking of the whole research and the most relating opinions and attitudes of the sample population. This analysis paved the way to the implementation of the scenario-based methodology in a way that we believe has provided evidence that the situation can be practically remedied if all the necessary requirements meet. As chapter five brought a representing sample of the scenario-based methodology's application to the classroom context, it allowed us to observe the real effect of the methodology on the participants' motivated behaviour. Though we assume that the classroom observation analysis did not provide quantitative claims, it shows

qualitative evidence of the existing relation between the participants' motivated behaviours and the scenario-based methodology's features, the results of the post-testing interviews testifies of the wide success and the great positive effect scenario-based instruction has on the learners' engagement, motivation and satisfaction. This qualitative evidence is represented in the learners expressions displayed in their talks.

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

Starting from Kindley's (2002) linking of the scenario-based methodology to the full understanding and the mastery of the knowledge it is used for and inspired by Stewart and Symonds's (2009) support to the methodology's assistance with both learners' motivation and the uptake of skills, we opted for the study of a narrower scope of the scenario-based methodology limited to the borders of the dissertation i.e. the present dissertation attempts to study the effect of the scenario-based instruction on the motivation of Business English learners in the department of Commerce at Mentouri University in Constantine.

We started by gathering what we believe is relevant literature to the tested methodology as to provide a clear view of the directing element of the study. We provided a set of term and concept definitions relevant to the related fields from which the scenario-based methodology might be originated and others in which it has been used or adapted. Further in the dissertation, we described the utilitarian value and the practical implementation of the method to the field of language learning and its possible combinations with the existing methods. Hence, we aimed at providing some pedagogical implications of the method and its use and potential effect on the language learners as to create a transactional relation between scenario-based methodology and motivation.

As the target variable of the study is the learners' motivation, we thought it would be necessary to devote a chapter in the dissertation to the study of this phenomenon. Provided the abundant motivation literature, it has been difficult to design the limits of the 2<sup>nd</sup> chapter. However, we found it fairly important to survey the most influential mainstream motivational theories as to provide a strong

foundation of the construct. Before that, we started the chapter by the illustration of some definitions and categorizations of the motivation construct. We, further, provided a survey of language learning motivation and some of the main studies done in the field as to relate the chapter to the scope of the present dissertation. Another section of the chapter was devoted to the manipulation of motivation with a focus on the two most relating elements to the scenario-based methodology: the teacher and the context. The latter represents the key concept of the tested methodology. Moreover, it has motivated the dedication of the third chapter to the environment within which this context is to be created.

In this respect, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and more specifically Business English was the third element to which we devoted a whole chapter which aims at providing a literature review of the most influential studies done in the field and the most striking elements involved in ESP teaching/learning processes such as needs analysis, discourse analysis, register and genre analysis.

Finally, the practical part of the dissertation was presented in chapters four and five. On the one hand, chapter four includes the investigation of the problematic situation that we stated at the very beginning of the dissertation using two main tools: (1) the main questionnaire which was designed to collect data about the current status of English in the concerned department as well as learners' attitudes and opinions about the teaching/learning process and learners' learning preferences and strategies; (2) the focused pre-testing interview which was designed to support the questionnaire results and to collect more reliable data based on the participants' personal experiences. On the other hand, the last chapter includes the implementation of the scenario-based methodology and its analysis by the use of both a classroom observation video record to provide a concrete analysable sample,

and focused post-testing interviews to collect more reliable data based on the participants' personal evaluation of the experiment.

The results of both chapters were discussed in the light of the theoretical literature provided in the previous chapter as to build a consistent and valid link between the theory and the practice of the whole dissertation. Finally, we illustrated the limitations and constraints of the study and suggested some pedagogical implications that we believe help in improving the situation.

We believe that the present dissertation is only a drop in a wide sea. The field of ESP within the borders of the Algerian universities is still wild and needs to be domesticated. The present dissertation can be further extended to the investigation of the scenario-based instruction or other communicative methodologies in the teaching of English in departments other than the English one. The essence of our thinking direction is that before caring about the knowledge to provide learners with, our primary focus should be to determine the causes of the learners' demotivation and to provoke the factors that may remedy to it.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1: The Pilot Questionnaire

Dear students

This questionnaire is part of a survey conducted to collect data about the English teaching in the department of Commerce in Mentouri University of Constantine. The aim of this survey is to analyze the suitability of the teaching methodologies used by the teachers in this department and to check the efficiency of the scenario-based methodology that may enhance the students' motivation.

Please try to answer the following questions; be sure that your identity and your opinion will be kept confidential. Your completion of the present questionnaire will be of great help to this research. We thank you in advance for your cooperation.

#### FIRST SOME FACTS ABOUT YOU

Age: .....

Field of study: Marketing  Accounting

Grade: 3<sup>rd</sup> year  Master

#### NOW SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR STUDIES

- 1- With regard to your high studies, would you say that English classes were more focused on:

<b>Skills</b>	Never	Rarely	Often	Always
Listening				
Speaking				
Reading				
Writing				



<b>Language</b>	Never	Rarely	Often	Always
Grammar				
Vocabulary				
Phonetics				

2- What kinds of materials were used in your English class at the University?

Textbooks       Handouts       Pictures

Audio tracks       Videos

Others (Please specify):

.....

3- How often were you as a student allowed to participate in classroom discussions?

Never       Rarely       Often       Very often

4- Why did you attend English classes? Tick the appropriate frequency.

<b>Reasons</b>	Never	Rarely	Often	Always
To succeed in my studies (it is an obligation)				
To change from the content subject I study (a kind of entertainment)				
To learn business vocabulary				
To improve my English				



5- How much do you agree with the following statements?

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
English classes are interesting.					
English classes are boring.					
English classes are good to relax.					
English classes are good to revise other subjects.					
English teachers in my department do not care about students' understanding.					
The majority of the students in my department do not care about learning English.					
The teachers / students relationship is very good.					
The way of teaching English in my department makes English interesting.					
English is assigned an important role in my department.					

**NOW, YOUR ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH**

6- Is English for you?

Necessary       Important       Optional       Not important



7- What do you think of the difficulty of these tasks?

<b>Tasks</b>	<b>Very Difficult</b>	<b>Difficult</b>	<b>Medium</b>	<b>Easy</b>	<b>Very easy</b>
Understanding an English TV program					
Explaining to an English speaker how to go from the airport to the hotel					
Writing an e-mail to an English friend to invite him to visit your country					
Reporting news to your father from an English newspaper					

8- If you have preferences of learning the tasks above, reorder them according to your preference from 1 to 4.

<b>Tasks</b>	<b>Order</b>
Understanding an English TV program	
Explaining to an English speaker how to go from the airport to the hotel	
Writing an e-mail to an English friend to invite him to visit your country	
Reporting news to your father from an English newspaper	

9- Do you study English out of the classroom?

Yes

No

(If "No" go to question 15)

10- How often do you study English out of the classroom?

Rarely

Sometimes

Often

Everyday



11- Why – For which purpose?

- |                        |                          |                               |                          |
|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| You don't have time    | <input type="checkbox"/> | It is difficult               | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| You are not interested | <input type="checkbox"/> | You lack materials            | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| You need it for chat   | <input type="checkbox"/> | You need it for a job         | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| You like it            | <input type="checkbox"/> | Availability of the materials | <input type="checkbox"/> |

12- How do you study English out of the classroom?

- Alone at home
- In a specialized school
- With friends in a library

Others (Please specify): .....

13- What kind of materials do you use? Tick the appropriate frequency.

<b>Materials</b>	<b>Never</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Always</b>
Books.				
Magazines				
Dictionaries				
Movies				
CDs /software				
Internet websites				
Songs				

14- According to your choice of the materials above, indicate the reasons of your choice?

- |                               |                          |                             |                          |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Quality of the materials      | <input type="checkbox"/> | Reputation of the materials | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Presentation of the materials | <input type="checkbox"/> | Cost of the materials       | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Availability of the materials | <input type="checkbox"/> | Challenge of the materials  | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Others (please specify).....



15- When attending an English class what do you prefer to do? Tick the point in the scale (from 0 to 5) that indicates your preference.

<b>Activities</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
Reading texts from a photocopied handout and answering comprehension questions.						
Reading aloud for your classmates.						
Acting a fictional scene						
Acting a real scene						
Answering grammar exercises.						
Writing a free paragraph.						
Writing a guided paragraph.						
Listening to a conversation and practicing it with a partner.						
Practicing a free conversation.						
Completing a dialogue and practicing it with a partner						
Watching a video and commenting it.						
Playing a game where you have to speak.						
Playing a game where you have to write.						
Playing a game where you have to listen.						
Playing a game where you have to read.						

THANKS A LOT FOR YOUR COOPERATION

## Appendix 2 : The Main Questionnaire

أعزائي الطلبة

إن هذا الإستبيان هو جزء من تحقيق قائم لجمع معلومات حول تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في قسم العلوم التجارية بجامعة منتوري قسنطينة، و الهدف من هذا التحقيق هو تحليل ملاءمة منهجيات التدريس المستعملة من طرف الأساتذة في هذا القسم و التحقق من نجاعة المنهجية المبنية على السيناريو والتي بإمكانها تحفيز الطلبة و الرفع من دافعيتهم. الرجاء محاولة الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية مع العلم أن كل من هويتكم و آراؤكم ستبقى سرية. إن إتمامكم لهذا الإستبيان يعتبر عونا كبيرا لهذا البحث. نشكركم مسبقا على مساعدتكم.

FIRST SOME FACTS ABOUT YOU				أولا بعض المعلومات الشخصية			
Field of study:	Marketing	<input type="checkbox"/>	Accounting	<input type="checkbox"/>	التخصص:		
	تسويق		محاسبة				
Grade:	3rd year	<input type="checkbox"/>	Master	<input type="checkbox"/>	المستوى:		
	السنة الثالثة		ماستير				

### NOW SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR STUDIES

الآن بعض الأسئلة حول دراستك

1- With regard to your high studies, would you say that English classes were more focused on  
بالنظر الى دراستك العليا، يمكنك القول أن دروس اللغة الإنجليزية كانت أكثر ما تركز على:

Skills	المهارات	Never	Rarely	Often	Always
		أبدا	نادرا	كثيرا	دائما
Listening	الإستماع				
Speaking	التكلم				
Reading	القراءة				
Writing	الكتابة				
Language	اللغة	Never	Rarely	Often	Always
		أبدا	نادرا	كثيرا	دائما
Grammar	القواعد				
Vocabulary	المفردات				
Phonetics	النطق				

2- What kinds of materials were used in your English class at the University?			
ما هي أنواع أدوات التدريس التي كانت تستعمل في حصص اللغة الإنجليزية على مستوى الجامعة؟			
Textbooks <input type="checkbox"/>	Handouts <input type="checkbox"/>	Pictures <input type="checkbox"/>	
كتب النصوص	المطبوعات	الصور	
Audio tracks <input type="checkbox"/>	Videos <input type="checkbox"/>		
السمعيات	الفيديو		
Others (Please specify): .....			
أدوات أخرى (حدد من فضلك): .....			

3- How often were you as a student allowed to participate in classroom discussions?			
كطالب ما كان مدى السماح لك بالمشاركة في مناقشات داخل القسم؟			
Never <input type="checkbox"/>	Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>	Often <input type="checkbox"/>	Always <input type="checkbox"/>
أبدا	نادرا	كثيرا	دائما

4- Why did you attend English classes? Tick the appropriate frequency.						
لماذا كنت تحضر حصص اللغة الإنجليزية؟ عين التردد المناسب.						
			Never	Rarely	Often	Always
		الدوافع	أبدا	نادرا	كثيرا	دائما
A	To succeed in my studies (it is an للنجاح في دراستي (التزام)					
B	To change from the content subject I للتغيير الجو من المقاييس ذات المحتوى (نوع من					
C	To learn business vocabulary لتعلم المفردات التقنية					
D	To improve my English لتحسين مستواي في اللغة الإنجليزية					

5- How much do you agree with the following statements?		ما مدى موافقتك للإقتراحات الآتية؟				
Statements	الإقتراحات	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		أوافق بشدة	أوافق	حيادي	أعارض	أعارض بشدة
A-	English classes are interesting. حصص الإنجليزية مثيرة للإهتمام					
B-	English classes are boring. حصص الإنجليزية مملة					
C-	English classes are good to relax. حصص الإنجليزية مناسبة للإستراحة					
D-	English classes are good to revise other subjects. حصص الإنجليزية مناسبة لمراجعة مقاييس أخرى					
E-	English teachers in my department do not care about students' understanding. أساتذة الإنجليزية بقسمنا لا يكثر تون لفهم الطلبة					
F-	The majority of the students in my department do not care about learning English. معظم الطلبة بقسمنا لا يكثر تون لتعلم الإنجليزية					
G+	The teachers / students relationship is very good. العلاقة بين الأساتذة والطلبة جد جيدة					
H+	The way of teaching English in my department makes English interesting. طريقة تدريس الإنجليزية في قسمنا تجعلها مثيرة للإهتمام					
I+	English is assigned an important role in my department. تحضى الإنجليزية في قسمنا بمكانة مهمة					

NOW, YOUR ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH				الآن طباعك إتجاه اللغة الإنجليزية			
6- Is English for you				هل الإنجليزية بالنسبة لك			
Necessary	<input type="checkbox"/>	Important	<input type="checkbox"/>	Optional	<input type="checkbox"/>	Not important	<input type="checkbox"/>
ضرورية		مهمة		إضافية		غير مهمة	

7- What do you think of the difficulty of these tasks?		ما رأيك في صعوبة المهام الآتية؟				
Tasks	المهام	Very Difficult	Difficult	Medium	Easy	Very easy
		صعبة جدا	صعبة	متوسطة	سهلة	سهلة جدا
A	Understanding an English TV program فهم برنامج تلفزيوني باللغة الإنجليزية					
B	Explaining to an English speaker how to go from the airport to the hotel توضيح المسار من المطار إلى النزل لشخص متحدث بالإنجليزية					
C	Writing an e-mail to an English friend to invite him to visit your country كتابة رسالة إلكترونية لدعوة صديق إنجليزي لزيارة بلدك					
D	Reporting news to your father from an English newspaper تبلغ والدك بأخبار من جريدة باللغة الإنجليزية					

8- If you have preferences of learning the tasks above, reorder them according to your إذا كان لديك تفضيل فيما يخص تعلم أداء المهام المذكورة، أعد ترتيبها من 1 إلى 4 حسب ما تفضله.

Tasks	المهام	Order
		الترتيب
A	Understanding an English TV program فهم برنامج تلفزيوني باللغة الإنجليزية	
B	Explaining to an English speaker how to go from the airport to the hotel توضيح المسار من المطار إلى النزل لشخص متحدث بالإنجليزية	
C	Writing an e-mail to an English friend to invite him to visit your country كتابة رسالة إلكترونية لدعوة صديق إنجليزي لزيارة بلدك	
D	Reporting news to your father from an English newspaper تبلغ والدك بأخبار من جريدة باللغة الإنجليزية	

9- Do you study English out of the classroom?

Yes / نعم  
 No / لا

(If "No" go to question 15)

(في حال "لا" اذهب إلى السؤال 15)

10- How often do you study English out of the classroom?

Rarely   
نادرا

Sometimes   
أحيانا

Often   
كثيرا

11- Why – For which purpose? لماذا؟ لأي غرض؟

<input type="checkbox"/> You don't have time ليس لديك الوقت	<input type="checkbox"/> It is difficult إنها لغة صعبة
<input type="checkbox"/> You are not interested لست مهتما	<input type="checkbox"/> You lack materials نقص أدوات تعلمها
<input type="checkbox"/> You need it for chat تحتاجها للدرشة	<input type="checkbox"/> You need it for a job تحتاجها من أجل العمل
<input type="checkbox"/> You like it اللغة تعجبك	<input type="checkbox"/> Availability of the materials توفر أدوات تعلمها

12- How do you study English out of the classroom? كيف تدرس الإنجليزية خارج القسم؟

Alone at home	<input type="checkbox"/>	بالمنزل لوحده
In a specialized school	<input type="checkbox"/>	بمدرسة خاصة
With friends in a library	<input type="checkbox"/>	بالمكتبة مع الأصدقاء
Others (Please specify): .....		شكل آخر (حدد من فضلك): .....

13- What kind of materials do you use? Tick the appropriate frequency.

ما هي الأدوات التعليمية التي تستعملها؟ حدد مدى إستعمالك لكل منها.

Materials	الأدوات	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always
		أبدا	أحيانا	كثيرا	دائما
Books.	الكتب				
Magazines	المجلات				
Dictionaries	القواميس				
Movies	الأفلام				
CDs /software	الأقراص المضغوطة/البرامج				
Internet websites	مواقع الأنترنت				
Songs	الأغاني				

14- According to your choice of the materials above, indicate the reasons of your choice.

تبعاً لإختيارك للأدوات المذكورة، حدد دوافع إختيارك.

Quality of the materials جودة الأدوات	<input type="checkbox"/>	Reputation of the materials سمعة الأدوات	<input type="checkbox"/>
Presentation of the materials طريقة تقديم الأدوات	<input type="checkbox"/>	Cost of the materials تكلفة الأدوات	<input type="checkbox"/>
Availability of the materials توفر الأدوات	<input type="checkbox"/>	Challenge of the materials التحدي الموجود في الأدوات	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others (please specify): .....		دوافع أخرى (حدد من فضلك): .....	

15- When attending an English class what do you prefer to do? Tick the point in the scale (from 0 to 4) that indicates your preference.		عندما تحضر حصة إنجليزية، ما هي النشاطات التي تفضل القيام بها؟ حدد درجة تفضيلك على السلم من 0 إلى 4				
Activities	النشاطات	0	1	2	3	4
A	Reading texts from a photocopied handout and answering comprehension questions. قراءة نص من مطبوعة ثم الإجابة على أسئلة الفهم					
B	Reading aloud for your classmates. القراءة لزملائك بصوت مرتفع					
C	Answering grammar exercises. الإجابة على تمارين في القواعد					
D	Writing a free paragraph. كتابة فقرة حرة (الموضوع من إختيارك)					
E	Writing a guided paragraph. كتابة فقرة مقيدة (الموضوع مقترح)					
F	Completing a dialogue and practicing it with a partner إكمال حوار و ممارسته مع زميل					
G	Listening to a conversation and practicing it with a partner. الإستماع إلى محادثة ثم ممارستها مع زميل					
H	Acting a fictional scene تمثيل مشهد خيالي					
I	Acting a real scene تمثيل مشهد حقيقي					
J	Practicing a free conversation. ممارسة محادثة حرة					
K	Watching a video and commenting it. مشاهدة فيديو و التعليق عليه					
L	Playing a game where you have to speak. المشاركة في لعبة أين عليك التكلم					
M	Playing a game where you have to write. المشاركة في لعبة أين عليك الكتابة					
N	Playing a game where you have to listen. المشاركة في لعبة أين عليك الإستماع					
O	Playing a game where you have to read. المشاركة في لعبة أين عليك القراءة					

THANKS A LOT FOR YOUR COOPERATION

شكرا جزيلاً على تعاونكم

### **Appendix 3: The Pre-testing and Post-testing Interview Guide.**

#### **Methodology:**

This focused interview is intended to follow up a situational analysis that had been carried out around the teaching learning situation in the department of Commerce in Mentouri University. It aims at completing the data collection process and supporting both the observational analysis and the questionnaire's results. Yet, the very aim of this interview is to collect data about the learners' personal subjective experiences and opinions about the teaching methodologies used by the English teachers in order to provide the research work with a realistic proof of the set hypothesis.

In this respect, the interview will be applied to a random sample of 12 learners from the department of Commerce. It will be conducted on two folds; pre- and post- testing of the scenario-based instruction, in order to show the effect this latter has on the learners' motivation.

#### **Areas of inquiry:**

##### ***The pre-testing interview:***

- Students' opinions about the teaching learning contexts
- The degree of involvement of learners in the learning process
- Students' needs
- Students' learning strategies

##### ***The post-testing interview:***

- Students' opinions about the scenario-based methodology's contexts.
- The degree of involvement of learners in the learning process.
- Students' personal satisfaction (or self-evaluation) of their needs through the experiment
- Students' suggestions (if any).

Students will be given the floor to count their own subjective experiences. The above mentioned areas of inquiry will be presented to the learner in Standard Arabic. However, they will be allowed to express themselves in any language they feel comfortable with. The talk duration, too, will not be restricted.



# APPENDICES



Appendix 4: The Code Scheme

		Minutes*	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>20</u>		
<b>Observed Behaviours</b>	<b>Learners</b>	<b>Participation</b>	Volunteering / Suggesting answers			1				1	1	1	4		1		1		1	1					
			Engagement in dynamic movements												0										
			Engagement in authentic actions	1											1										
			Sharing planing												0									1	1
			Sharing decision making												0									1	
			Asking for teacher's help												0									1	1
			Asking for peers' help						1		1				2			1			1		1		1
			Peer-based feed back									1			1				1				1		
		<b>Attention</b>	Facial agreement		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	8	1	1	1	1						
			Note taking		1	1	1	1			1	1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1		1				
	Attentive look			1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		8	1							1			
	<b>Comfort</b>	Smiling	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
		Lauphing							1		1			2		1			1	1					
		Sharing success hapiness		1										1											
		Social chat				1	1	1					1	4	1				1	1					
	<b>Teacher</b>	<b>Participation Structure</b>	Group work											0											
			Pair work	1											1								1	1	1
		<b>Teacher's behaviours</b>	Praise		1										1						1				
			Promoting autonomy												0	1					1	1	1	1	1
			Promoting instrumental values			1	1				1	1	1		5	1	1	1		1					
Social chat														0											
Providing guidance														0	1			1		1	1	1	1	1	
Providing inspiration														0				1				1			
Providing information		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	9	1	1	1	1	1	1		1		1			



Continuing

<u>T</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>29</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>31</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>33</u>	<u>34</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>37</u>	<u>38</u>	<u>39</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>44</u>	<u>45</u>	<u>46</u>	<u>47</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>50</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>51</u>	<u>52</u>	<u>53</u>		
4				1						1	2											0				1		1	1				3					
0											0											0												0				
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	9	1											1				
2											0											0					1		1	1		1	4			1		
1											0											0												0				
2											0	1										1									1	1	2	1	1			
4		1									1											0				1	1			1			3					
2					1						1											0								1			1					
4			1	1						1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1					6				1								1			1	
5											0											0		1										1				
2	1		1				1		1		4	1		1		1						3		1	1								2		1			
10	1	1	1	1		1	1	1	1		8	1		1	1	1	1		1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	9			1		
3	1	1			1	1	1				5							1		1		2		1									1					
0											0											0												0				
3		1									1	1					1					2	1		1		1							3				
0				1	1	1	1	1	1		6	1	1					1	1	1	1	6	1				1	1	1	1				5				
3	1	1	1								3											0										1	1	1	1	1		
1			1					1			2											0	1										1					
6	1				1		1				3	1									1	3					1			1	1	3	1	1				
4											0											0												0				
0			1								1											0	1						1				2					
7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	9	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	9	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	9	1		1		
2											0											0		1						1	1	1	1	5	1	1	1	
7		1							1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1					6												0				





Continuing

<u>88</u>	<u>89</u>	<u>90</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>91</u>	<u>92</u>	<u>93</u>	<u>94</u>	<u>95</u>	<u>96</u>	<u>97</u>	<u>98</u>	<u>99</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>101</u>	<u>102</u>	<u>103</u>	<u>104</u>	<u>105</u>	<u>106</u>	<u>107</u>	<u>108</u>	<u>109</u>	<u>110</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>111</u>	<u>112</u>
			2								1		1	2											0		1
			6								1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1				1	1	7	1	
1	1	1	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10	1	1			1	1	1	1	1	1	8	1	1
	1	1	5				1	1		1	1		1	5	1	1		1	1	1			1	1	7		1
1	1	1	8	1	1	1	1							4				1	1	1					3		
			4	1									1	2							1		1	1	3		
			0			1								1					1				1		2		
	1	1	3		1	1	1	1	1		1		1	7	1	1					1		1	1	5	1	
			0	1						1				2	1										1		
			0											0											0		
1	1		5		1									1		1	1		1						3		
1	1		8	1	1			1	1	1	1			6	1	1	1		1				1	1	6		
			4				1				1	1	1	4	1	1	1						1	1	5	1	
			0											0			1								1	1	1
1	1		3											0			1		1			1		1	4	1	1
1	1	1	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10	1	1
			0											0											0		
			0											0	1	1	1	1							4		
		1	8		1	1						1		3	1		1	1	1	1		1	1	1	8	1	
			0											0											0		
1			1				1							1			1								1		
1		1	6	1	1								1	3			1	1	1	1		1	1		6		
			6	1	1					1	1			4	1	1				1				1	4		
			0						1	1				2							1	1			2	1	



Continuing

<u>113</u>	<u>114</u>	<u>115</u>	<u>116</u>	<u>117</u>	<u>118</u>	<u>119</u>	<u>120</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
								1	20	16,67%
			1	1		1		4	20	16,67%
1	1	1	1	1	1	1		9	76	63,33%
	1	1		1	1	1		6	39	32,50%
								0	26	21,67%
1	1			1	1			4	31	25,83%
								0	15	12,50%
1	1	1	1	1	1	1		8	31	25,83%
								0	29	24,17%
								0	15	12,50%
1	1	1			1	1		5	45	37,50%
1						1		2	90	75,00%
			1		1			3	36	30,00%
1	1	1	1					6	8	6,67%
								2	32	26,67%
1	1	1	1	1	1	1		9	79	65,83%
								0	14	11,67%
						1		1	12	10,00%
1			1					3	53	44,17%
								0	9	7,50%
	1		1		1			3	12	10,00%
1								1	72	60,00%
1					1			2	34	28,33%
				1				2	33	27,50%

## RESUME

La création d'un contexte d'apprentissage motivant dans des cours de langue a un effet positif sur la motivation des apprenants ; plus ce contexte est semblable au monde réel, plus il est susceptible d'attirer l'attention des apprenants et de promouvoir leur autonomie et leur engagement. Le présent travail de recherche vise à étudier l'effet de créer un contexte d'apprentissage motivant inspiré de scénarios du monde réel sur la motivation des apprenants en Anglais langue étrangère. Plus précisément, il vise à étudier le rôle de la méthode dite fondée sur le scénario dans le renforcement de la motivation des apprenants d'Anglais des affaires dans le département du Commerce à l'Université Mentouri de Constantine. On suppose, dans cette étude, que les leçons basées sur des scénarios inspirés de situations réelles augmentent le taux de participation des apprenants à la manipulation et la réorientation de leur processus d'apprentissage. En d'autres termes, la méthode basée sur le scénario, comme une variable de recherche, pourrait renforcer la motivation des étudiants à apprendre et promouvoir leur taux d'engagement au processus d'apprentissage. La méthodologie de recherche s'appuie sur trois outils pour vérifier la validité de l'hypothèse de recherche et de ces variables. Un questionnaire a été administré aux étudiants, des séances d'observation en classe ont été enregistrées, et des interviews pré-test et post-test ont été réalisés en vue de l'évaluation de l'instruction fondée sur le scénario par apport à la motivation des étudiants. Les résultats de l'étude ont offert un appui important à l'hypothèse même s'ils ne peuvent pas être considérés comme des facteurs de généralisation.

## المخلص

من المعتقد أن خلق جو تعلم محفز داخل أقسام اللغات له أثر إيجابي على دافعية الطلبة، وكلما كان هذا الجو مشابها للواقع كلما أصبحت الأنشطة الممارسة في القسم أكثر استقطابا لاهتمام الطلبة و أكثر تعزيزا لاستقلاليتهم و التزامهم. هذه الرسالة تهدف إلى دراسة تأثير خلق إطار تعلم محفز مستوحى من سيناريوهات واقعية على دافعية الطلبة. وبشكل أكثر تحديدا، تهدف الرسالة إلى دراسة دور ما يسمى بمنهجية السيناريو في الرفع من دافعية طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية للأعمال بقسم العلوم التجارية بجامعة منتوري – قسنطينة و يفترض في هذه الدراسة أن الدروس الملقاة بمنهجية السيناريو، و المستوحاة من حالات واقعية لعالم الأعمال، من شأنها أن ترفع من نسبة مشاركة الطلبة في التحكم و إعادة توجيه مسار تعلمهم. بعبارة أخرى، منهجية السيناريو، كمتغير، من شأنها رفع دافعية الطلبة للتعلم و تعزيز درجة إلتزامهم بمسار التعلم. تعتمد منهجية البحث على ثلاثة أدوات لدراسة صحة فرضية البحث و متغيراته. حيث قمنا بتقديم إستبيان للطلبة و تسجيل فيديو لمراقبة الفصول الدراسية. كما قمنا بتسجيل مقابلات قبلية و بعدية للتجربة مع الطلبة. ولقد قدمت نتائج الدراسة دعما كبيرا لفرضية البحث رغم أنها لم ترقى إلى درجة التعميم.